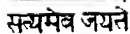


OF THE



1964

PREFACE

The report of the Committee appointed to consider the relationship of the State Governments and local bodies in the administration of Primary education was considered by the Central Advisory Board of Education at their 19th meeting held at New Delhi on 15th and 16th March, 1952. The Board accepted in broad outline the recommendations of the Committee and desired that these may be forwarded to the State Governments for their information and guidance, so that they may enforce them in the light of their special circumstances and problems.



सत्यमेव जयते

on which, if possible, the U.S.G. departments of the states may be represented, would very much strengthen the hands of those state governments that are finding it increasingly difficult to introduce the general recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Education on account of the criticism that those recommendations do not put forward a feasible formula suited to the present democratic set-up of the country's administration."

In pursuance of this recommendation, the Hon'ble Minister for Education appointed the following committee for the purpose :

1. The Hon'ble Chief Minister, Bombay,
SHRI B. G. KHER. (Chairman)
2. The Hon'ble Minister for Local-Self Government,
Uttar Pradesh, SHRI A. G. KHER.
3. SHRI J. C. MATHUR,
Secretary, Education Department,
Bihar Government.
4. DR. D. M. SEN,
Secretary, Education Department,
West Bengal Government.
5. DR. K. C. KHANNA,
Retired Secretary and Director of Public Instruction,
Punjab Government.
6. DR. V. S. JHA,
Secretary, Education Department,
Madhya Pradesh Government.
7. DR. I. R. KHAN,
Director of Education,
Uttar Pradesh.
8. SHRI D. S. REDDY,
Director of Public Instruction,
Madras.
9. SHRI CHUNILAL D. BARTWALA,
Director-General, All-India Institute of Local-Self Government, Bombay.
10. SHRI SYED NURULLAH,
Joint Director of Public Instruction,
Bombay.
11. SHRI K. G. SAIYIDAIN,
Joint Secretary to the Government of India,
Ministry of Education. (Secretary)

2. The Committee held two sittings, one at Bombay on 23rd, 24th and 25th October, 1951, and the other at New Delhi on 19th and 20th December, 1951, both under the Chairmanship of the Hon'ble Shri B. G. Kher. Shri K. G. Saiyidain, Joint Secretary to the Government of India, Ministry of Education, acted as the Secretary to the Committee. He was assisted by Shri K. L. Joshi, Assistant Educational Adviser to the Government of India, Ministry of Education.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

At the 18th meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education held at Trivandrum in January, 1951, the Government of Bihar raised the question of the relationship between the state governments and local bodies in respect of the administration of elementary education, and suggested that a committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education may be appointed by the Chairman, the Hon'ble Minister for Education, to examine the question thoroughly. In the memorandum submitted by the Bihar Government, they stated :

“ In paras 7 and 8 of Chapter XII of the Report of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Post-War Educational Development in India (Sargent Committee Report) it has been categorically stated that the state governments should forthwith resume all educational powers and that in order to retain local interest, school boards for smaller areas may be set up where some people with the requisite knowledge, enthusiasm, integrity and standing are available ; the members of these boards should be nominated by the State Education Department and their powers should in no case include any control over the appointment, promotion, transfer or dismissal of teachers.

2. “ On principle the adoption of this recommendation will be highly desirable for the future development of education in the various states. But in practice even the partial withdrawal of the powers from the district boards has led to considerable opposition from local bodies on the ground that the state government will thus be acting against the salutary principle of decentralising the administration of education. Also the history of the fight of local bodies with the previous government for increased autonomy has created a mentality of severe opposition to any assumption of powers of these bodies by the state governments. Even though conditions from state to state may vary, in view of these historical factors as well as of the undoubted necessity of decentralisation of the administration of elementary education, it would be helpful to the state governments if a Committee of the Central Advisory Board could examine, in detail, the present set-up of local administration of education in the different states, the experiments carried out in some of the states in the assumption of more powers by the state governments, the requirements of different state governments in this regard and recommend a more or less uniform pattern which may, with a few variations, be adopted in all the states of India. Such a well-considered recommendation by a central committee

3. At the first meeting all the members except Dr. I. R. Khan were present. Shri J. P. Naik, Secretary, Indian Institute of Education, Bombay, and Shri C. L. Kapur, Secretary, Education Department, Punjab Government, also attended the meeting by invitation. Both these gentlemen were later co-opted as members of the Committee for the second meeting held at New Delhi. At the second meeting, all the members with the exception of Dr. I. R. Khan and the Hon'ble Shri A. G. Kher were present.

4. At the Bombay meeting, the Committee finalized Chapter II dealing with the historical survey of the role of local bodies in Indian education. The Committee also considered the position in some of the important countries of the world in so far as this problem of relations between the state governments and local bodies in respect of primary education is concerned and the information appears in Appendix 'A' of the report. The Bombay meeting further considered the following issues :

1. Should the local bodies be associated with the administration of primary education in some form or the other ?

or

Should the administration of primary education be fully centralised under the state education departments ?

If the second of these alternatives is agreed to, no further questions will arise. (It is presumed that no powers will imply no contributions).

If, however, the first of these alternatives is accepted, several questions will arise. These are indicated below.

CHOICE OF LOCAL BODIES

2. What local bodies should be associated with the administration of primary education in urban areas ? In particular,

- (a) Should every municipality be authorised to manage primary education ?

or

- (b) Should only selected municipalities be authorised to do so ?

If the latter alternative is preferred, on what principles should the election be made ?

Do you propose that municipalities should be "graded" on some principles and that varying degrees of authority should be entrusted to different grades ? If so, suggest the principles and the different grades of authority to be delegated.

(N.B.—The word "municipality" used here shall include all urban bodies of local government such as Town Committees, Notified Area Committees, Cantonment Boards, etc.).

3. In rural areas, which local bodies should be associated with the administration of primary education and to what extent ?

In particular,

- (1) Do you think that the district is too large a unit for local administration of primary education ?

If you do, would you advocate its abolition as a unit for educational administration or would you coordinate its working with other smaller units like *talukas* or villages ? If so, how ?

- (2) Would you prefer the *taluka* as the principal unit of the administration of primary education ? If so, how would you constitute a *taluka* body and define its powers ?
- (3) Would you prefer to adopt the village as the principal unit on the French model with or without a district or *taluka* educational council for coordinating purposes ?
- (4) All the questions raised above (Question No. 2) regarding municipalities, should also be considered here with reference to village *panchayats*, *mutatis mutandis*.

DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT SYSTEMS

4. Do you prefer the dependent system or the independent system for education of educational bodies association with the local bodies entrusted with powers in respect of primary education ?

(To be answered for each type of local bodies).

5. If you prefer the dependent system, what should be the relation between the local body and its educational body ? Do you think it necessary to prescribe some essential principles regarding the composition, powers etc. of educational bodies in the dependent system ? If so, would you provide for these matters in the Acts constituting the local bodies or in separate enactments ?

What, in your opinion, should these essential principles be ? Would you prefer the English model where each local body prepares, with the approval of the Government, a scheme for the working of its educational body ? If not, how would you provide for local freedom and experimentation in this matter ?

6. In the independent system, what should be the composition of each type of educational body you propose ?

Should the educational bodies under the independent system be treated as local bodies with all that it signifies ?

POWERS

7. In respect of each type of local body you propose to associate with the administration of primary education, what authority would you vest in the local body concerned, in respect of the following :

- (1) Inspection
- (2) Teaching staff appointment, promotion, punishment, leave etc.
- (3) Non-teaching staff appointment, promotion, punishment, leave etc.
- (4) Curricula
- (5) Textbooks
- (6) School hours and vacations
- (7) Construction and maintenance of school buildings
- (8) Provision of school equipment and contingencies
- (9) Opening and closing of schools
- (10) Any other matter pertaining to primary education.

(See also question No. 9).

8. What should be the relations between the state education department and local bodies (or independent educational bodies) in the different matters pertaining to the administration of primary education (Question No. 7) ?

FINANCE

9. Should powers follow purse ? Should they be decided on grounds of administrative efficiency, democracy and convenience ?

10. Should local bodies be required to spend a prescribed minimum percentage of their revenue on education ? If so, what should it be ?

(To be separately answered for each type of local bodies).

(See also question No. 15).

11. For which local bodies should a P. E. Fund be established ? What items should go into this fund ?

12. On what principles should state grants be given to primary education ?

If grants are to be based on approved expenditure, how would you define "approved" ?

13. What should be the procedure for sanctioning a budget and reappropriations therein ?

14. What arrangement for audit would you propose ?

15. Should the levy of an education cess be generalised in all states and in urban as well as in rural areas ? If so, on what basis ?

(See also question No. 10)

16. Should state grants be discretionary or statutory ?

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

17. Should the responsibility for compulsory education be on the state or on local bodies ?

Would you divide the responsibility between them ? If so, how ?

18. Should the state grants for compulsory education be on a different basis from that of grants for voluntary education ?

19. Does the enforcement of compulsory primary education suffer in any way on account of the present administrative arrangements ? If so, how would you remedy the situation ?

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

20. What control should local bodies have over private primary schools in their respective areas ? How would their authority be coordinated with that of the Education Department ?

5. On the basis of the discussion on the questions stated above, the Committee formulated certain principles. In this connection the material from the state governments in response to a questionnaire issued to them was placed before the Committee. This enabled the Committee to understand the existing relations between the state governments and local bodies in respect of primary education. The Bombay meeting requested Mr. J. P. Naik to prepare a draft on the basis of this material for the third Chapter which was considered by the Committee in their Delhi meeting and approved with necessary modifications. A summary of the recommendations made by the Committee after a critical analysis of the position in different states appears separately in the report.

6. The appendices contain valuable information collected for the first time in connection with the problem before the Committee and it is hoped that this information will be useful to all readers of this report.

7. Shri Chunilal D. Barfiwala, a member of the Committee, has submitted a note of dissent which is printed as annexure.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL

1. *How Local Bodies in India Came to be Associated With the Administration of Primary Education* :—The association of Indian local bodies with the administration of education in general and that of primary education in particular, was the result of several factors. In the earlier half of the nineteenth century, when the first attempts to educate the people were being made by the East India Company, its officials tried to establish educational institutions of the modern type and maintain them partly from voluntary contributions collected from the people and partly from grants-in-aid sanctioned by the government. This *modus operandi* succeeded fairly well in respect of English schools because the people were extremely eager to learn English and also willing to make financial sacrifices to obtain its knowledge. In respect of primary education, however, their satisfaction with the indigenous schools made them reluctant to support the new primary schools that the officials were anxious to establish and consequently official attempts to collect public contributions for primary schools usually came to grief. Moreover, it was argued that such attempts created a prejudice against education, made the government itself unpopular, and compromised the dignity of officers by placing them in the light of importunate and often unsuccessful applicants for pecuniary contributions. It was to avoid these difficulties experienced in obtaining voluntary local support that the *Despatch* of 1859 directed the levy of a local rate, to defray the cost of maintaining primary schools. Obviously, the establishment of local bodies and their association with the administration of primary schools follow as a corollary from this order although the *Despatch* makes no specific reference to them.¹

The second factor which helped the development was the ever present desire of British officials to imitate English precedents. For about 50 years prior to the Elementary Education Act of 1870, an agitation was being organised in England to the effect that elementary education of the masses should be entrusted to local bodies having the power to levy rates and to enforce compulsory attendance. Very naturally, some of the progressive British officials of this period desired to adopt this suggestion in India, with necessary changes. Among these must be mentioned the names of Lieutenant Davidson, Assistant Superintendent of the Deccan Survey, who proposed a local rate for education and agriculture as early as 1839 ; Captain Wingate, Revenue Survey Commissioner, Bombay, who proposed a similar rate for education and roads² ; Mr. E. I. Howard, Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, who drafted a bill for the levy of an educational cess to support village schools³ ; and Mr. James Thomason, the Lieutenant Governor of the N.W. Province (now U.P.)⁴

¹ Paras 49—53.

² J.P. Naik : History of the Local Funds Cess, p. 1.

³ *Ibid*, p. 3.

⁴ *Ibid*, p. 10.

who actually levied the first local rate in India in 1851. The efforts of such officers gathered great support and strength when local rates were imposed in England itself, under the Elementary Education Act of 1870 and the levy of local rates accompanied by the creation of local bodies to administer them, became general in India, as a simple imitation of an English precedent.

The third factor which contributed to this development was the financial stringency which the Central Government was always experiencing under the wasteful system of a centralised financial administration created in 1833. The first important attempt to check the evil was made by Lord Mayo⁵. Under his Decentralisation Order of 1870⁶, the state governments were assigned fixed grants for expenditure on education and were authorised to supplement them by the levy of local rates—a concession which was availed of everywhere with great alacrity because there was no alternative to meet, even partially, the growing popular demand for education. The decentralization that thus began on financial grounds soon came to stay as a measure of general administrative reform and the levy of local rates to meet a specific situation of financial stringency ultimately resulted in giving local bodies a share in the administration of education in general and of primary education in particular.

The fourth, and probably the most important, factor was political. Indian nationalism began to develop very early and in order to meet it the British imperialists decided to utilize local bodies as a half-way house, by Indianizing them on the one hand, and granting them larger powers and responsibilities on the other. The transfer of education to these bodies, therefore, seemed fully justified, partly because such a step was not inimical to imperialist interests and partly because it met a demand of the people themselves and kept them occupied with some constructive work. The initial decision thus taken became more deep-rooted with the passage of time. For example, when the British Government refused to introduce compulsion on the ground that it was alien in character, Gokhale suggested that the initiative in this respect should be left to local bodies which had been Indianized. On the basis of similar arguments, large powers over the administration of primary education were transferred to local bodies soon after the Government of India Act, 1919⁷. In other words, the local bodies represented "Self-Government" for the people and were entrusted with important tasks for social service which, among others, included primary education as well.

2. *The Role of Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education Prior to 1882* :—Prior to 1882, there was no legislation for village *panchayats*, and hence the main types of local bodies were two : (a) municipalities in towns and cities and (b) district and *taluka* local boards (or Councils as they were called in some states) in rural areas.

⁵ B. R. Misra : Indian Provincial Finance, 1919—39, pp. 37—41.

⁶ *Ibid*, pp. 41-42.

⁷ Gokhale's Speeches (1920 Edition), pp. 615-16.

(1) *Financial Aspects* :—Of these, the municipalities were the first to be established. But as the primary object in creating them was to improve roads, sanitation, etc., the early municipalities had nothing to do with education and could not legally incur any expenditure for educational purposes. Later on, permissive Acts were passed and the municipalities were authorised to assign funds for education. But it was not obligatory on them to incur such expenditure ; nor was any minimum contribution prescribed by law. Consequently, the municipalities of this period made very small contributions towards the support of primary education in their respective areas.

In the rural areas, however, the position was entirely different. Here the idea of levying rates for educational purposes was entertained right from the start. As early as 1851, Mr. Thomason, the Lieutenant-Governor of the N.W. Province, levied a rate of one per cent on land revenue—which was shared equally between government and the landlord—and devoted its proceeds to the maintenance of primary schools in rural areas. The success of his scheme emboldened the *Despatch* of 1859 to direct that such rates should be levied everywhere—an order that was carried out in all states except Bengal in the decade 1861—71. Close on the heels of the N. W. Province came the Punjab where a cess of one per cent on the land revenue was levied as early as in 1856-57. At first, only a few districts were covered by the levy which, however, was generalised in 1864. The Central Provinces imposed a cess at one per cent of the land revenue in 1862-63 ; but as the proceeds were inadequate, the rate of the cess was raised to two per cent, two years later. Bombay levied a cess of $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on land revenue in 1863 and generalised its levy by the Bombay Local Funds Act of 1869. One-third of the cess was earmarked for education. Berar imposed a cess of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on land revenue and earmarked one-fifth of it for education. Madras passed a Local Funds Act in 1871 and imposed a cess at a rate not exceeding one anna on land revenue but did not prescribe any definite proportion of it to be paid to education. A local cess was introduced in Assam in 1879 ; and Bengal was the only Province of British India where no cess on land revenue was imposed even so late as 1882, owing mainly to the existence of the permanent settlement of land revenue which was held to be a legal bar for the levy of any cess on land.

On the whole, it may be said that the local bodies of this period made substantial contributions to the expenditure on primary education, especially in rural areas. According to the Indian Education Commission, the total expenditure on primary education in 1881-82 was Rs. 79,09,940 out of which Rs. 17,21,668 came from state funds ; Rs. 25,41,402 from local funds ; Rs. 20,64,771 from fees ; and Rs. 15,82,009 from other sources⁸.

(2) *Powers of Local Bodies over Primary Education* :—Although the contribution of local bodies was thus the largest of all, power did not follow the purse and most of the authority over the administration of primary education was centralised in the officials of the Education

⁸ Report, pp. 164-65.

Department. This was partly due to the fact that the local bodies of this period were undemocratic and dominated by officials and partly to the diffidence of the bodies themselves so that they did not exercise even the few powers that were delegated to them in theory. For example, in Madras, the boards had, in theory, the powers of regulating the fees and the course of studies. As a general rule, however, the course of studies was determined by the Department. The boards also had, in theory, the power to sanction their educational budget ; but in practice they usually accepted the budget estimates prepared by the Education Department. In Bombay, the municipalities took little interest in education ; but, in rural areas, Local Fund Boards were established—one for every district—and were given fairly wide powers in theory. They administered the whole fund for primary education, prepared their own budgets, transferred or closed schools at their pleasure, regulated fees, and without their authority no departmental primary school could be established. But their practical control over education was limited by the delegation of several of their own functions to the departmental officers. In the Central Provinces, local boards (with village school committees subordinate to them) were created to administer primary education. But in practice, in the Central Provinces as well as in Berar and Coorg, the local rates allocated to education were administered by officers while school committees in charge of village schools, had no power to spend any part of them. It would, therefore, be quite correct to say that the association of local bodies with the administration of primary education during this period was, more or less, nominal and theoretical and that they did little beyond augmenting the revenues in support of primary education.⁹

3. *The Role of Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education Between 1882 and 1921* :—The Resolution of Lord Ripon on Local Self-Government (1882) opened a new chapter in the history of local bodies and in their association with the administration of primary education. Here the concept of local self-government was clearly enunciated ; a desire was expressed that the local bodies should be developed as “ an instrument of political and popular education ” ; and, as fundamental principles of local self-government, it was laid down that (a) the area entrusted to each local body should be fairly small;¹⁰ (b) the local bodies should have non-official majorities and, whenever possible, the principle of election should be introduced ; (c) the Chairmen of local bodies should, as far as possible, be non-officials ; (d) government control over local bodies should be exercised from without rather than from within ; (e) local services should be under the control of local bodies ; and (f) that local bodies should have elastic and adequate financial resources. Lord Ripon was of the opinion that the efficiency of administration would definitely improve with the development of local self-government institutions. He held the view that it was not only bad policy but even sheer waste of power not to utilize the services of the growing intelligent class of public-spirited men in the country and said that local

⁹ For details, see Report of the Indian Education Commission, pp. 151—57.

¹⁰ For municipalities, the towns and cities were to be taken as units ; and in rural areas, the *talukas* were to be the units.

bodies must succeed (i) if adequate resources were made available, (ii) if transfer of duties involving additional expenditure was simultaneously followed by transfer of additional and adequate resources ; and (iii) if government officers " set themselves to foster sedulously the small beginnings of the independent political life and came to realise that the system really opened to them a fairer field for the exercise of administrative and directive energy than the more autocratic system which it superseded."

This Resolution of Lord Ripon is rightly looked upon as the *Magna Carta of Local Self-Government in India*. Action on it was taken in all states and the system of local self-government institutions was considerably reorganised. But unfortunately, the progress achieved during the next four decades was not satisfactory. This was mainly due to the fact that the liberal principles laid down by Lord Ripon were not accepted and acted upon by his successors. " They were thought to be in advance of time, and the provincial governments whittled them down in the course of giving legislative effect to them. In the day-to-day administration, the district officers and their subordinates whittled them down still further. Election was introduced but without a broad franchise. Provision for election of non-official chairmen was made in the law, but in practice the official chairmen were still retained. Financial independence was not conceded to local bodies. Under these circumstances local self-government failed to make satisfactory progress"¹¹ ; and though ' we had the framework of local self-government all over the country and beginning of local self-government here and there ', on the whole " the opinion expressed by the Simon Commission that local self-government, in the real sense of the word, was practically non-existent "¹² was the correct description of the position, even as late as 1921.

Financial Aspects :—Financially, the local bodies played a very useful role in the period between 1882 and 1902. During these years of financial depression, the Burmese War, a famine and a plague, the state grants available to primary education were naturally very restricted. But the local bodies helped to make up the deficiency considerably, as the following statistics will show :

Source						Expenditure on Primary Education	
						1881-82	1901-02
						Rs.	Rs.
State Funds	17,21,668	16,27,947
Local Board Funds	25,41,402	36,44,386
Municipal Funds	7,76,485
Fees	20,64,771	31,15,211
Other Sources	15,82,099	27,11,730
Total						79,09,940	1,18,75,759

¹¹ Sharma, M. P. : Local Self-Government and Local Finance in U.P., pp. 6-7.

¹² Gyan Chand : Local Finance in India, pp. 35-36, L/N131MofEdu.

It will be seen that there is an actual decrease in state grants for primary education. But the contribution of local bodies showed a substantial rise and enabled primary education to expand. This illustrates how a multiple-source finance helps the cause of primary education better than a single-source finance. Under the former, the deficiency of one source can be made up by increases in others and there are fewer chances of the cause, as a whole, being allowed to suffer.

Circumstances changed considerably in the years between 1901-02 and 1921-22. Curzon turned a new page by declaring that primary education had "hitherto received insufficient attention and an inadequate share of public funds"; that it possessed "a strong claim upon the sympathy both of the supreme Government and of the local Governments"; that it "should be made a leading charge upon provincial revenues"; and that its encouragement should be a primary obligation in those areas where it was in a backward condition.¹³ Secondly, this was a period of boom when the Imperial and state governments had larger resources to give although the revenues of local bodies (except in the case of municipalities to some extent) continued to be inelastic and limited. Thirdly, the agitation for compulsory and free education conducted by G. K. Gokhale and others made government curtail the revenue from fees on the one hand and to emphasize the expansion and improvement of primary education on the other. By 1921-22, therefore, the general picture of the finance of primary education was completely changed as the following statistics will show :

Source	Expenditure on Primary Education			
	1901-02		1921-22	
	Amount	p.c.	Amount	p.c.
State Funds	16,27,947	13.5	2,67,46,035	52.8
Local Board Funds	36,44,386	30.5	89,67,899	17.6
Municipal Fund	7,76,485	6.7	50,51,635	9.8
Fees	31,15,211	26.3	49,07,427	9.6
Other Sources	27,11,730	23.0	52,35,111	10.2
Total	118,75,759	100	509,08,107	100

The First World War, it must be noted, was largely responsible for the rise in the cost of living and for increasing the expenditure on primary education. As the resources of local bodies were comparatively inelastic, most of the increase in expenditure had to come from state funds so that this source now accounted for 52.8 per cent of the total expenditure as against 13.5 in 1901-02.

¹³ Government Resolution on Education Policy, 1904, para 18.

Grants-in-aid :—Another feature of the period was the failure to evolve a proper system of grants-in-aid to local bodies. Government ought to have realised (a) that primary education needs large and ever-expanding revenues; (b) that the local bodies whose resources are limited and mostly inelastic would never be able to shoulder the principal responsibility for primary education; (c) that the state governments must, therefore, come forward with liberal grants-in-aid to local bodies if mass education were to progress adequately; and (d) that state grants to local bodies must be based on the “equalisation” principle, that is to say, larger grants should be given to poorer bodies, so that a minimum uniform standard of education is maintained everywhere. But unfortunately these salutary principles were totally ignored. It was tacitly assumed that the financial responsibility for primary education rested mainly upon local bodies. In fact, there was a time when it was even argued that local funds must entirely support primary education and that the state governments need give no help to them in this respect. But under Home Department Circular No 60 of 11th February 1871, it was laid down that local funds were entitled to grants-in-aid from the State, that such grants should preferably be proportional to amounts raised locally, and that they should not ordinarily exceed one-third of the total expenditure or one-half of all the local assets¹⁴. This policy was soon adopted everywhere although the types of grant-in-aid varied from state to state and the ceiling grant of one-third of the total expenditure was rarely paid in practice. The Indian Education Commission made a vague recommendation to the effect that primary education has a “large claim” on provincial revenues and an “almost exclusive claim” on local funds set apart for education.¹⁵ It also observed that “the liberality of one part of India may afford an example to local governments or local boards elsewhere”¹⁶. But in actual practice, the old policies continued to dominate the scene; the state grants to primary education decreased rather than increased; and in 1901-02, they provided only 13.5 per cent of the total expenditure on primary education.

Although the state governments began to give larger grants for primary education between 1901-02 and 1921-22, no attempt was made, even during this period, to evolve a scientific system of grants-in-aid. This will be evident from the following synopsis of the developments in this regard¹⁷ :

(a) *Bihar and Orissa* :—Prior to 1913, no grants were made to municipalities on account of primary education. In that year, the first grants were sanctioned to assist the municipalities in maintaining or aiding primary schools. They were also required to prepare schemes for the improvement and expansion of education in their areas. For this, both capital grants (limited to 20 per cent of the ordinary income of the

¹⁴ *Nurullah and Naik* : History of Education in India during the British Period, pp. 340-41.

¹⁵ *Ibid*, p. 353.

¹⁶ *Ibid*, p. 356.

¹⁷ For details, vide *J. A. Richey* : Grants-in-aid to schools in British India.

municipality) and recurring grants (limited to three per cent of the ordinary municipal income) were sanctioned. These grants were given subject to the condition that an equal amount was found by the municipalities from their own funds. In the case of district boards the grants were fixed arbitrarily. When a board was first created, certain charges as well as certain sources of revenue were transferred to it and the Government grant was made equal to the difference between these two. When Central grants became first available between 1902 and 1905, additional funds were given to the boards; but no principles were evolved for making these grants, the local officers generally stating their needs and such money being given as was available. When further Central grants became available after 1911, they were also distributed to the boards for specific purposes such as improving the pay of teachers, opening of more schools etc. The result of all this haphazard development was that the grants given to the different districts varied considerably and the rate of educational expansion in the different parts of the State was very unequal.

(b) *Bengal* :—Here, most of the primary schools were private. These were aided on the system of payment-by-results prior to 1902-03. In that year, a new system was introduced under which the teacher of a private school was given a subsistence allowance (paid quarterly) and an additional allowance (paid annually) depending on attendance of pupils, nature of instruction and general character of the school. Local bodies, wherever they were in charge of primary education, set aside a portion of their own income for this purpose and also received grants-in-aid from the Government. (The grants-in-aid were generally made for specific purposes such as raising the remuneration of teachers).

(c) *Bombay* :—Prior to 1903, all local bodies were paid contract grants equal to one-third of the total expenditure. In that year, the proportion of the grants-in-aid was raised to one-half. In the case of municipalities, the old system of contract grants continued to be adopted till the year 1918, and the amounts of grants were revised only periodically according to the funds at the disposal of the Government. After 1918, however, the system of contract grants was discontinued and Government grants to municipalities were revised annually, the grant for any given year being equal to half the approved expenditure during the preceding year. In the case of local boards the expenditure went on increasing so fast and their own revenues were so inelastic, that the principle of proportionate grants was abandoned in 1905 and the Government paid for all the deficit in their budgets. In 1921, about 15 per cent of the total expenditure only was paid for from the local cess; fees paid another three per cent; and the balance of 82 per cent was paid for by Government as a grant-in-aid.

(d) *Central Provinces and Berar* :—Prior to 1917, there was no definite system of grants-in-aid to municipalities in the Central Provinces. Every municipality was supposed to spend five per cent of its income on education and the balance was supposed to be given by the Government as grant-in-aid. But the municipalities did not give the contribution required of them, nor were the Government grants adequate and equitable. In *Berar*, all municipalities were given grants-in-aid at one-third of

their total approved expenditure on education. In 1917, a common system of grants-in-aid was evolved for the states as a whole. The municipalities were required to set aside one anna in a rupee of their income from general taxes for purposes of education. Additional expenditure incurred, if any, was to be shared between the Government and the municipalities on a fifty-fifty basis. In rural areas, there were district councils in the Central Provinces and district boards in Berar. Prior to 1915, there was no definite system for grants-in-aid to these bodies. In that year, the Government began to sanction grants both for improvement and extension of primary education, after taking into consideration, not only the relative needs of each area as indicated by the estimate of expenditure required for improvement and by the total number of unprovided boys, but also the special needs and circumstances, financial and otherwise, of each District Council or Board.

(e) *Madras* :—Prior to 1906, educational institutions conducted by local bodies were treated just like any other private schools and were given financial assistance under the Grant-in-aid Code. From 1906, subsidies to local bodies were sanctioned; but no definite principle was evolved in respect of them. Each subsidy was separately sanctioned and its amount, purpose and manner of expenditure were all specifically laid down by the Government from time to time. Ordinarily, when a scheme of expansion or improvement was initiated by the Government, almost all expenditure on it was paid for by the Government; but when such proposals originated with the local bodies, their financial condition and resources were carefully examined and the assistance of the Government was limited only to such amounts as were beyond the ability of local bodies concerned. Further, under the Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920, the Government grant to a local body which introduced compulsory education, was to be equal to the income from the Education Cess levied by the local body concerned.

(f) *Punjab* :—Prior to 1910, there was no regular system of grants-in-aid to local bodies. When the Central grants of 1910-11 became available, they were distributed to local bodies on the definite principle, that the Government agreed to pay two-thirds of the salary of every qualified teacher (subject to a minimum of Rs. 15/- for the head teacher, and Rs. 12/- for an assistant teacher) *plus* all contributions to teachers' provident funds and half the cost of school repairs. In 1915, these variable grants were converted into fixed grants. That is to say all grants given in any one year became final, with a recurring charge for the next year and were liable to be reduced only on account of schools that might have ceased to function. Additional grants for expansion or improvement were only given for schemes previously approved by the Department. But a little later, a new and interesting system of grants-in-aid to local boards was devised although the grants to municipalities continued as before. According to its provisions, all districts were "graded" on the basis of their financial position and capacity. To each grade was assigned a fixed percentage, which varied from a minimum of 50 to a maximum of 100, the average for the whole Province working out at about 66 per cent. The Government grant to a district local board consisted of the following two parts: (1) the *basic grant*, i.e. a sum equal to the recurring grants which it received in the preceding year; and (2)

an *additional grant* calculated by applying the grade percentage to the excess of the budgeted educational expenditure of that district, for that year, over the actual expenditure of the previous year.

(g) *United Provinces* :—It is not clear how the ordinary grants to local bodies were fixed in the United Provinces. They were probably given as fixed grants and were revised from time to time. Additional grants appear to have been given to municipalities towards the close of this period, subject to certain general conditions. For compulsory education, the Government agreed to give two-thirds of the extra cost involved in the scheme. In the case of district boards, fixed grants were probably given for the usual expenditure. Towards the end of this period, however, the Government gave special grants to boards for specific purposes, such as improvement in the pay of teachers, expansion of training facilities, education of women or depressed classes and construction of primary school buildings.

From the above survey of the different systems of grants-in-aid to local bodies as they prevailed between 1901-02 and 1921-22, the following general conclusions become at once evident :—

(a) *Inadequacy of Government Grants* :—As a rule, it may be stated that, throughout the period under review, the Government grants to local bodies on account of education were inadequate. From 1882 to 1904, the upper limit for such grants was one-third of the total expenditure and thereafter it was raised to one-half. But full grants were not always received in practice and it can, therefore, be said without fear of contradiction that, right to the end of this period, the main responsibility for financing primary education was placed on local bodies and that Government grants played a secondary role. The only exceptions to this general statement were the district local boards in the Province of Bombay, where Government grants met about 82 per cent of the total expenditure and some of the poorer districts in the Punjab whose "grade" was higher than 50.

(b) *Variety of Systems Adopted* :—Another feature that becomes evident is the large variety of systems of grant-in-aid that was in vogue during this period. For example, Madras gave arbitrary "subsidies" without attempting to evolve any general principles except in the case of compulsory education where the grant was made proportional to the total expenditure. In Bombay, the proportional system was adopted in the case of municipalities but grants to local boards were intended to meet the whole deficit. Bengal followed a system of arbitrary grants. Bihar and Orissa followed the proportional system in the case of municipalities but adopted the system of arbitrary block grants and grants for specific purposes in the case of district local boards. The Punjab was the only Province where a sensible attempt was made to grade the districts according to their economic capacity and to adjust the grants accordingly.

(c) *Failure to Adopt the Right Principles of Grant-in-Aid* :—A variety of systems of grant-in-aid is not, in itself, objectionable as a principle of State policy ; on the other hand, it may even be welcomed as a democratic concept. But a study of the different systems of grant-in-aid that pre-

vailed in this period makes one feel that their variety did not arise out of a planned and intelligent attempt to adjust administrative procedures to local conditions. On the other hand, it grew out of sheer lack of coordination at the State level and out of a tendency to follow the line of least resistance. The most fundamental principles of grant-in-aid ought to have been (1) the provision of equality of educational opportunity in all parts of the State ; and (2) the securing of the maximum possible expansion of primary education (assuming, for the sake of argument, that the introduction of universal compulsory education was not feasible). But the authorities do not even appear to have been conscious of these principles. In most provinces, inequalities of educational development in different areas were not only allowed to continue but were often accentuated by a wrong distribution of grants-in-aid. The proportional system of grants also tended to give a lead to the richer districts and to increase, rather than diminish, the difference between them and the poorer areas. Similarly, the system of specific-purpose grants was mainly directed to bring about an improvement in quality rather than to secure expansion. On the whole, therefore, one cannot help concluding that, in spite of the practical experience spread over half a century and in spite of a large variety of experiments tried, the problem of grant-in-aid to local bodies was far from reaching a satisfactory solution even as late as 1921.

Powers over Primary Education :—Turning to the problem of the powers of local bodies, it becomes at once evident that the general trend in this period was to increase them. It was shown earlier that power did not follow the purse prior to 1882, when the local bodies contributed more to the support of primary education but had the least power to control it. Between 1882 and 1922, the financial responsibility for primary education shifted to the government ; but once again, power did not follow the purse and, on political grounds as well as on those of decentralisation, the powers of local bodies over education were generally increased. The Indian Education Commission recommended that laws should be passed in every province with object of vesting authority over primary education in local bodies and of defining their relations with the state education departments.¹⁸ This recommendation was generally adopted. The trend was further strengthened by the Decentralisation Commission of 1909 which recommended an increase in the powers of local bodies.¹⁹

Between 1910 and 1912, Gokhale agitated that the initiative in introducing compulsion should be left to local bodies—a view which steadily gained ground ; and finally, the political considerations of stemming the rising tide of Indian nationalism also led to a greater democratisation of local bodies and to an increase in their powers. But in spite of all the factors and changes, the actual authority over primary education delegated to local bodies was fairly small even at the end of

¹⁸Nurullah and Naik : op. cit., pp. 347-49.

¹⁹Report, Part III.

this period and its general outline can be easily understood by the following *proposals* on the subject made by the Government of India in 1916 :

“ During the quinquennium, the Government of India issued a resolution on Local Self-Government and also passed orders on the questions raised by the Royal Commission on Decentralisation. These orders, issued on the 19th September 1916, were as follows : Generally speaking the Government of India endorsed the decision of the Commission to give to local bodies a greater share in the control of such education as is entrusted to them. It accepted the principle that the activities of these bodies should, in the main, be confined to primary schools, though the charge of vernacular middle schools might also be undertaken in cases where their duties towards primary education were fully discharged, and that secondary institutions teaching English should be financed by Government. As, however, Government is at present unable to meet the additional expenditure which the adoption of this recommendation would involve and the reduction in grants for other objects might lead to misconceptions, the financial support of secondary English schools is now maintained at the cost of local bodies ; it must continue so to be maintained, though expenditure on this object should not be increased at the expense of the interests of primary education. As regards the powers of local bodies, such matters as leave, acting and travelling allowances, pensions or provident funds and maximum salaries for establishments, should be governed by rules prescribed by the local government. But the local bodies should have a free hand in the creation and filling up of appointments, punishments, dismissals, etc. They should also be able to open and close schools, although the collector should have power to order the opening of new primary schools where necessary and a local body might be required to submit proposals for the closing of a school to the collector or the director. The practice under which a certain choice is allowed in the curriculum should be emphasised. The departments of public instruction will continue to prescribe the course of studies, the adoption of which with or without any alteration, should be left to the local bodies. Text books not approved by the department should not be prescribed without the sanction of the Collector. But a free choice should be given from lists of approved writings, provided changes are not unnecessarily frequent. As regards inspection, the ordinary practice should continue as heretofore, namely, the retention of the inspecting staff in the pay and under the control of government, though a local staff might be maintained at the expense of local funds provided it merely took the place of the existing staff and was subordinated to the government inspecting agency. Finally, local bodies should be given full power to pass their budgets, though the rule should generally be adopted that grants made for education are spent on that object and that the standard of expenditure on primary education prior to the receipt of such grants is not substantially reduced.”²⁰

4. *The Role of Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education* (1921-1950) :—The Montague-Chelmsford Report of 1915 stressed

²⁰Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Primary Education in India, 1912-17, Vol. I, para 118.

very greatly the development of local bodies in India and consequently, the Government of India Act, 1919, classified both education and local-self government as "transferred" subjects and placed them under the control of Indian Ministers. This opened a still further chapter of progress in the history of Indian local bodies. Attempts were now made to create and vivify village *panchayats*, which had been totally neglected so far. The constitution of municipalities and local boards was almost fully democratised; their franchise was widened; larger resources were placed at their disposal either through fresh assignments of revenue, or through increased powers of taxation or by more liberal grants-in-aid, and their powers were generally increased. As Gyan Chand puts it, "Before the Reforms, there was so much make-believe in the working of the system of local government that it was difficult to distinguish phrases from facts. Now the situation has changed and we are living in a different world altogether. In other words, we have now passed from an atmosphere of unreality into one of reality. Our political system, it is well known, is still full of contradictions and incongruities, and these cannot but affect the working of the system of local-self government. But now, the whole perspective has been changed and the growing integrity of national life will reduce the power and scope of these contradictions, and make among other things, local-self government a self-consistent institution which will fit into the whole scheme of national life."²¹

*Powers over Primary Education (1921-1929) :—*The Government Resolution of 1916 which has already been referred to, and the Montague-Chelmsford Report of 1918 created three important trends. The first was the emphasis on the expansion of primary education, on the introduction of universal, compulsory and free primary education and on the spread of literacy among the adults; the second was an attempt to democratize local bodies, to give them larger resources, to guarantee their legitimate internal freedom of action, and to free them, as much as possible, from external control; and the third was to make local bodies responsible for the administration of primary education and for the introduction and enforcement of compulsion. Between 1918 and 1930, therefore, the Primary Education Acts were passed in all Provinces of British India. They provided for the introduction of compulsory primary education and transferred far larger powers over the administration of primary education to local bodies than what had ever been contemplated at any time in the past. The actual position varied from state to state, but the following extracts taken from the Report of the Hartog Committee will show the extent of delegation as it was in 1929 :

"In *Madras*, all primary schools are inspected by the departmental inspectors. The Corporation of Madras is the only local body which maintains a supervising staff of its own. It would appear, therefore, that while the Government still retains control over the expenditure on primary education and the duty of inspecting all schools, they are no longer in a position to initiate schemes for expansion or to regulate the provision of elementary education in the districts. In *Bombay*, primary

²¹Gyan Chand : op. cit. P.

education is almost entirely under the control of district boards and municipalities operating through the school boards. Viewing the position in Bombay as a whole, we think it is to be regretted that a system of primary education which had been framed on sound lines, should have been handed over to the control of local bodies without the insertion in the statutes or rules of sufficient safeguards to ensure that Government working through its Ministers and the Education Department, would be able, at least, to guide future developments. In *Bengal*, the Government is still mainly responsible for the organisation and control of primary education. We understand, however, that the draft Primary Education Bill which is under consideration, proposes to establish school boards in each district, on somewhat similar lines to the district educational councils now in existence, in Madras. The draft Bill also proposes to entrust the maintenance and management of all public institutions for the training of teachers in primary schools to the school boards..... In the *United Provinces*, primary education is largely in the hands of district boards and municipalities which are responsible for the provision, recognition, maintenance and aid of both primary and middle vernacular schools..... Our evidence leads us to believe that the transfer of control has been undertaken without a sufficient consideration of the desirability or otherwise of handing over all the powers and functions hitherto exercised by the collectors or the officers of the Education Department..... We have been informed that the Education Department was not even consulted before the District Boards Act was passed. Even in respect of the limited powers which the Government have retained in regard to the control over expenditure and the qualifications and pay of teachers, insufficient authority has been vested in Government to secure that their orders are carried out. We have been informed that, short of suspending the whole work of a board, the Government have no method by which they can insist on their orders being carried out..... In the *Punjab*, primary education is largely controlled by district boards and municipalities..... The inspecting staff of the Education Department inspect all schools, but the Chairmen of the local bodies exercise considerable control over the work of the deputy inspectors and sub-inspectors..... Our evidence shows that the main difficulty at present is the absence of any adequate power in the hands of Government even to enforce the existing statutory rules when the local bodies choose to ignore them.²²

The years between 1918 and 1929, therefore, may be considered as a hey-day in the history of local bodies in relation to education. On the one hand, they had an essentially democratic constitution, a fairly complete internal autonomy of action and much freedom from external control. On the other hand, they had greater control over education than at any time in the past. In some states, as in Bombay, the delegation of authority was even greater than that in England, because inspection as well as administration were both delegated to the local bodies.

Powers over Primary Education—the Hartog Report :—The large powers transferred to local bodies in the decade 1918-1928 created a

²²Report, p. 307-24.

storm of controversy. The officials were strongly opposed to such transfer on grounds of efficiency ; even among non-officials there was a section of opinion which believed such transfer to be inadvisable in the larger interests of education. A heated debate, therefore, ensued, especially at the time of the Hartog Report. On the one hand, it was argued that a transfer of authority over primary education to local bodies was democratic, based on sound precedents from abroad, and perfectly justified in theory as it would evoke greater local interests and a greater sense of local responsibility and thereby help the progress of primary education ; that the actual delegation of authority made by the Primary Education Acts was only moderate and needed further extension ; that, in spite of a few mistakes made here and there, the local bodies had, on the whole, exercised the powers delegated to them with competence and discretion, had brought greater resources to bear on the problem, and had expanded primary education in a manner and to an extent which had not been possible in the past ; and that, if any change was to be made at all, the powers of local bodies over primary education needed amplification rather than restriction. The Hartog Committee, however, did not accept any of these arguments. It pointed out that the delegation of authority to local bodies made between 1918 and 1928 was based on wrong assumptions. "It was assumed apparently", wrote the Committee "that though education and particularly primary education was of fundamental importance as a nation-building service and was, through the creation of literacy, the chief agency for creating that intelligent electorate on which political progress must depend, nevertheless the service of education was just as suitable as other services for extensive devolution on which local authorities could practise their 'prentice' hands and learn by making their own mistakes. This assumption presumably rested on the view that the national gain by way of greater interest and sense of responsibility from letting local authorities manage education, even if at first they did it badly, would outweigh the national loss, arising from delay in spreading literacy and other benefits of education, and the continued or increased waste of public money. It was perhaps also assumed that the 'mistakes' which local authorities would make would be due to inexperience rather than to any deficiency in that sense of trusteeship and guardianship of public interests essential to good local administration".²³ Moreover, the Committee also felt that the delegation of authority had been excessive and that local bodies had not properly exercised the new powers given to them. "There is ample evidence", wrote the Committee, "that local bodies are very inexperienced in the difficult work of educational administration, that they are often reluctant to consult educational officers, and that, in consequence, there is much that is wasteful and ineffective in the present system". It, therefore, recommended that at least some of the powers now delegated to local bodies should be withdrawn. "We have not suggested" wrote the Committee, "nor do we suggest that the responsibilities of Ministers in the provinces should be reduced. On the contrary, we are of opinion that they have been reduced too much already by a devolution on local bodies which has taken the control of primary education to a large extent out of their hands with unfortunate results. The relations between

²³Report, p. 328.

provincial governments and local bodies demand further consideration and adjustment. The formation of an educated electorate is a matter for the nation. Under recent legislation, powers have been devolved on local bodies in such a way that the Ministers responsible to the legislature have no effective control of the expenditure of money voted for mass education; and in some cases, owing to inadequate inspection, they have little information as to the results of that expenditure. It is clear that the new factor of ministerial responsibility has not been taken sufficiently into account".²⁴

*Powers over Primary Education (1930-50) :—*It would now have been evident that the Hartog Committee was generally opposed to too much delegation of authority to local bodies. Its recommendations, therefore, came to influence both official and non-official opinion to a very great extent and the view that, in that interest of the nation, it would be better to withdraw powers from the local bodies and to administer primary education on a centralised basis (i.e. through the departmental officers) as far as possible began to spread. The history of the role of local bodies in education between 1930 and 1950, centres, therefore, around one main issue, viz., the attempts made to withdraw the powers already delegated to local bodies.

The lead in this matter was taken by the State of Bombay. Shri B. G. Kher, the Education Minister, subscribed to this view and the Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education, appointed under his chairmanship, had also recommended the withdrawal of powers from local bodies. He, therefore, put his ideas into action in his own state. In 1938, the Primary Education Act was amended. Inspection which had been transferred to local bodies in 1923, was now taken over by the Government; the administrative officers of the school boards, who had been the servants of the boards concerned in the past, were now made government servants in order to give them the necessary backbone to discharge their duties fearlessly; and the control over teachers which was formerly vested in the boards was now vested in the administrative officers. In 1947, a new Primary Education Act was passed, under which the powers of the boards were cut down still further. The district school boards now became more or less advisory bodies, although the municipal school boards continued to enjoy their former powers; and some voice in the selection and recruitment of teachers and the control of their services was given to the chairman of the school boards through the creation of the Staff Selection Committees and the Appellate Tribunals.²⁵

Assam was the next to take the lead. Here a Primary Education Act had been passed as early as 1926, and powers over education were transferred under it to the local bodies. But in 1947, a new Primary Education Act was passed which came into force from 1st November 1948. Under the provisions of this Act, local bodies were relieved from the responsibilities of managing and financing primary education and its administration was now vested in an independent body consisting of the

²⁴ Report, pp. 346-47.

²⁵ Vide Sections 23 and 24 of the Bombay Primary Edn. Act, 1947.

Director of Public Instruction, three representatives of the Legislative Assembly, one representative of the Legislative Council and a Secretary appointed by the Government. Thus was created a centralised administration (which is partly democratic in character as well) for the administration of primary education. Needless to say, that the whole expenditure on primary education is borne by the State Government under this new arrangement.²⁶

The view of the Hartog Committee on this subject was further strengthened by the *Post-War Plan for Educational Development in India* which recommended that the provincial governments would be well-advised to resume all educational powers from local bodies except where they were functioning efficiently.²⁷ This emphatic statement of policy has had considerable effect and it may be said that, towards the end of the period under review, the tendency to withdraw powers from local bodies was generally gaining strength.

Financial Aspects (1921-22 to 1936-37):—In financial aspects, this period shows, to some extent, a repetition of the events of the period between 1881-82 and 1901-02. These years were generally darkened by financial stringency, due partly to the devastating effects of the Meson Award on State finances, partly to the increased expenditure connected with the reforms, and partly to the world economic depression which began in 1929-30 and whose effects were visible on Indian finance as late as 1935-36. Under this crisis, the system of multiple-finance again came to the rescue (as it had once done, between 1881-82 and 1901-02) and the deficits in State contributions were partly set off by the rise in contributions of local bodies. The following statistics speak for themselves :—

	1921-22		1936-37	
	Expenditure on primary education	Percentage to total expenditure on primary education	Expenditure on primary education	Percentage to total expenditure on primary education
	Rs.		Rs.	
State funds	2,67,46,035	52·8	4,04,21,947	48·3
Local Boards Funds	89,67,899	17·6	1,70,14,608	20·3
Municipal Funds	50,51,635	9·8	1,24,94,256	14·9
Fees	49,07,427	9·6	51,29,769	6·1
Other Sources	52,35,111	10·2	87,19,459	10·4
Total	5,09,08,107	100·0	8,37,80,039	100·0

²⁶Baroda, which is now merged in Bombay, transferred powers over primary education to local bodies in 1905 and, as the experiment did not succeed, withdrew them in 1910.

²⁷Report, pp. 89-90.

It will be seen from the above table that the contribution from state funds fell from 52.8 per cent in 1921-22 to 48.3 per cent in 1936-37. This fall was due to cuts in government grants for primary education. There is also a fall in the contribution from fees ; but this must be regarded as a move in the right direction. The deficit thus created by the decrease in the contribution from State funds and fees was compensated by the increased expenditure partly from local board funds which showed a rise from 17.6 per cent in 1921-22 to 20.3 per cent in 1936-37 and partly from municipal funds which rose from 9.8 per cent in 1921-22 to 14.9 per cent in 1936-37.

*Financial Aspects (1936-37 to 1949-50) :—*The events of this period resemble those of the years between 1901-02 and 1921-22. Both are periods of boom and cover a world war ; both show an unprecedented rise in prices and put up educational expenditure on account of the revision of salaries and grant of dearness allowances ; and both record an intensive drive for educational expansion and improvement—the first being due to nationalist agitation from outside, the second was due to the Congress being in power. A few brief notes on the general trend of financial developments during this period (based mainly on the Report of the Local Finance Enquiry Committee, 1951) are given below and they may be compared with those of the years between 1901-02 and 1921-22 given earlier :

(a) *Assam* :—As the Government has assumed full responsibility for primary education, the question of a grant-in-aid to local bodies does not arise at all.

(b) *Bihar* :—Bihar on the other hand leans more to the side of Madras. Here elaborate rules have been prescribed for the payment of grants-in-aid to local bodies.

(i) *Municipalities* :—Grants to municipalities are calculated on two separate scales, one for those which have introduced compulsion and another for those which have not. In the former case, there is no limit to the amount of the non-recurring grant admissible, but the municipality is required to contribute (unless specifically exempted) a sum equal to that to be paid by the government, subject to a limit of ten per cent of its ordinary income. The recurring grant admissible is limited to two-thirds of the cost of educating ten per cent of the male population of the municipality as recorded at the previous census at Rs. 11 per head and the municipality is required to find, from its own funds, half as much as is paid by the government. In the latter case, the non-recurring grant admissible is 20 per cent of the ordinary income of the municipality and the municipality is required to find, from its own funds, save under general or special sanction of the government, a sum equal to that to be paid by the government. The recurring grant admissible is limited to the sum given in 1922-23, or half the cost of educating five per cent of the male population of the municipality as

recorded at the previous census, at Rs. 8/- per head, whichever is greater. As a condition to any grant to the grant sanctioned for 1922-23, the municipality is required to find from its own funds as much as is paid by the government. The Government of Bihar consider that the minimum which any municipality should spend on primary education should be five per cent of its ordinary income and no increased grant is made to any municipality unless it undertakes to spend not less than this proportion of its income on primary education. Grants to district headquarter municipalities are, however, not regulated by the above formula.

- (ii) *District Boards* :—In the case of district boards, recurring grants are given according to the resources of the district board and the population of the district. For this purpose they have been divided into three classes, viz., (a) those which have a cess income of less than Rs. 150/- per thousand of population; (b) those with a cess income of over Rs. 150/- but not more than Rs. 250/-; and (c) the richest district boards. Each class receives a fixed grant per head of population, class (a) receiving the largest sum and so on. The amounts now given per head are (a) annas 2; (b) annas 1½; and (c) annas 1¼. As a condition to these grants, district boards in class (a) are normally required to spend 10 per cent of their income on education, boards in class (b) 12½ per cent and boards in class (c) 15 per cent. The principle is that the richer boards receive less from the government and are expected to spend more from their funds.

The following table traces the growth of expenditure on primary education during the decennial period ending 1948-49 :

			Total local bodies expenditure on primary education	Fees and other sources	Government assistance	Net expenditure from local funds
1948-49	1,34,42,320	24,48,451	80,50,242	29,43,627
1939-40	51,56,603	13,43,178	29,14,949	8,98,476
Increase	82,85,717 or 160·6%	11,05,273 or 82·2%	51,35,293 or 176·1%	20,45,151 or 227·4%

(c) *Bombay* :—Here, very radical changes have been introduced. In the case of municipalities, the general principle laid down is that of "equalisation", and the state grants increase progressively in inverse proportion to the wealth of the municipality concerned. Bombay is the richest municipality. Until recently, it used to be given a block grant of Rs. 9 lakhs; but now it is laid down that it will get a grant at 25 per cent of its approved expenditure subject to an upper limit of Rs. 25 lakhs. Then comes the municipality of Ahmedabad which gets a grant at 25

per cent of the approved expenditure while the next group of the municipalities—Poona, Surat and Sholapur—are aided at 33½ per cent. Then come several authorized municipalities²⁸ which are aided at 50 per cent of the approved expenditure. The non-authorized municipalities contribute a fixed proportion of the house-tax and then all the deficit is paid by the State. In the case of rural areas, the district school boards are required to pay a fixed part of the local cess (under existing orders, each board is required to levy a cess at 36 pies in a rupee and allot 15 pies out of it to education) and all the deficit is borne by the State. In practice, this order means that the State pays about 96 per cent of the expenditure on primary education in rural areas.

The following table compares the relevant statistics for the years 1937-38 and 1949-50 :

				Expenditure on Primary Education	
				1937-38	1949-50
				Rs.	Rs.
State Funds	1,00,31,231	6,54,05,236
Board Funds	58,01,123
Municipal Funds	59,60,299	1,59,05,852
Fees	7,71,104	42,42,478
Other Sources	14,82,161	59,53,036
Total				1,82,44,795	9,73,18,409
					(includes Rs. 10,684 from Central Government Funds)

It will be seen that the financial responsibility for primary education has now been assumed by the State (except in the case of a few major municipalities) in Bombay—a development which forms a contrast to the policy adopted in Madras.

(d) *Madhya Pradesh* :—In Madhya Pradesh, as in Bombay, the State expenditure on primary education has increased several times although the contribution from local funds shows a comparatively smaller increase.

(i) *Municipalities* :—Expenditure up to 6½ per cent of its total income is borne entirely by the municipality concerned. For all expenditure in excess of this obligatory amount, a municipality becomes eligible for a grant-in-aid at 50 per cent.

²⁸That is to say, authorised to manage primary education in their areas under the P.E. Act of 1947.

- (ii) *Janapada Sabhas* :—Education in rural areas was under the district boards and councils prior to 1948. These were aided on the basis of block-grants. Now, these bodies have been done away with and have been replaced by *Janapada Sabhas*. The basis of grants-in-aid to them is not clearly known.

Grants on account of compulsory education are based on the following rule :

“ Subject to the provision of funds in the sanctioned budget, the State Government undertakes to pay to a local authority—

- (a) an annual recurring grant equal to
- (i) one-half of the approved additional recurring expenditure involved by the introduction of compulsory education;
 - (ii) one-half of the fee income remitted as a result of compulsion in recognised primary schools ;
 - (iii) the grant-in-aid paid to private primary schools before the introduction of compulsion ; and
- (b) a non-recurring grant equal to one-half of the approved additional expenditure involved by the introduction of compulsory education *e.g.* school buildings and equipment.”

The following table shows the growth of local expenditure on primary education during the decennial period ending 1947-48 :

Year	Total income	Total expenditure	Net expenditure from local funds	Government grants	Receipts from other sources
1938-39	71,86,018	40,60,004	21,17,000	15,70,640	3,72,364
1947-48	1,78,27,250	1,13,21,316	39,72,061	66,07,646	7,41,602
Increase ..	1,06,41,232 or 147.2%	72,61,312 or 177.7%	18,55,061 or 87.6%	50,37,006 or 32.6%	3,69,238 or 98%

- (e) *Madras* :—In Madras, the principal sources for the support of primary education are three : (i) Government grants ; (ii) proceeds of the education tax ; and (iii) contributions from the general funds of local bodies.

The education tax is levied under section 34 of the Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920. Its rate is equivalent to 15 per cent of the property tax within the limits of the city of Madras. In the district board areas, the rate varies from ten pies in a rupee of land revenue in Bellary and Tanjore districts to 37 pies in Salem and the average works out at 20.5 pies in the rupee.

In the case of municipal areas in the mofussil, the education tax is levied as a surcharge on property tax, at rates varying with each municipality.

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The following table shows the increase of expenditure on primary education between 1938-39 and 1947-48 :—

Year				Total expenditure on primary education	Education tax	Government grants	Expenditure from general funds of local bodies
				(In Lakhs of Rupees)			
1947-48	369.33	116.74	153.00	99.59
1938-39	146.80	29.49	89.13	28.13
Increase	222.53 or 151.5%	87.25 or 295.8%	63.87 or 71.6%	71.46 or 253.0%

It will be seen that while government grants have increased by 71 per cent, the proceeds on education tax have risen by 295 per cent and the growth of expenditure from general funds of local bodies has been 253 per cent.

Prior to 1941, government grants were fixed with reference to the entire proceeds of the education tax realised by the local bodies. In that year, the Government amended the Elementary Education Act withdrawing from the obligation to make a contribution in respect of taxation sanctioned after that year. Thus local bodies got more or less fixed contributions in respect of the education tax realised by them. The total figure of Rs. 153 lakhs for Government grants (of which only a sum of Rs. 60 lakhs was statutory) was made up as under :—

- (i) Rs. 33 lakhs — grant in respect of education tax.
- (ii) Rs. 68 lakhs — subsidies for opening schools in schoolless areas.
- (iii) Rs. 45 lakhs — subsidies for introduction of compulsion in district board areas.
- (iv) Rs. 7 lakhs — grants for construction of school buildings at half the estimated cost.

In Madras, therefore, state grants still play a minor role in financing primary education.

(f) *Orissa* :—As this State was formed by taking over areas from (i) Bihar and Orissa and (ii) Madras, and as the systems prevailing in these two States were allowed to continue in their respective areas even after the creation of the new State, there is nothing special to report here in addition to what has already been recorded under Madras and Bihar. The provisions of the Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Act, 1919, and the rules framed thereunder apply to this State except for the area comprised in the Ganjam district which was taken over from the former State of Madras and to which the provisions of the Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920, are applicable. In order to do away with this dichotomy, the government have enacted a unified Local Government Act (1950) in which the provisions of the Madras Act have been incorporated to permit the levy of education cess on a uniform basis in all the districts of the State.

The following table shows the growth of expenditure on primary education during the decennial period ending 1948-49 :

	Total Expendi- ture	From District Funds (cess income)	From Municipal Funds	Govern- ment grants	Other sources
1939-40	11,14,249	1,26,105	45,182	9,38,803	4,159
1948-49	28,53,082	1,92,668	51,839	25,27,775	80,745

It will be observed that the growth of total expenditure on primary education in this State has been somewhat slower than in others. During the last ten years, the expenditure increased $2\frac{1}{2}$ times only. The income from education cess has increased very little and the increase in expenditure from municipal funds has been insignificant. As against this, the government grant is very nearly three times the figure for 1939-40.²⁹

(g) *Punjab* :—Owing to partition, it is not possible to give comparative statistics of the growth of expenditure on primary education in this State. But the old system of grants-in-aid of the prepartitioned Punjab (described in the preceding section) continued to be adhered to with slight modifications. In rural areas, the districts continue to be "graded" as in the past³⁰. Moreover, government have agreed to treat district board expenditure on compulsory education as approved for grant purposes and, in view of financial difficulties, have begun to assist them on 100 per cent basis for all fresh schemes of development and improvement. For municipalities, in addition to the basic grants of 1915, government contribute—

²⁹ In several parts of the State, local bodies do not exist. In such cases the primary schools are controlled by the State Education Department.

³⁰ The district boards have been graded as under:—

Limit of eligibility for
additional grants

(1) Amritsar, Gurdaspur, Ferozepore, Jullundur, Hoshiarpur, Ambala and Karnal	60%
(2) Hissar and Ludhiana	70%
(3) Rohtak and Gurgaon	80%
(4) Kangra	90%
(5) Simla	100%

(i) for new schools, on the following scales :

	Primary Schools	Middle Schools	Hostels
1. For Boys	Rs. 200/- p.a.	Rs. 1,300/- p.a.	Rs. 50/- p.a.
2. For Girls	Rs. 150/- p.a.	Rs. 110/- p.a.	Rs. 50/- p.a.

(ii) For compulsory education, half the actual cost, subject to a maximum of rupees five per pupil, per annum.

(iii) On improvement of pay scales of primary teachers—half the additional expenditure.

(iv) On dearness allowance—one-third of expenditure.

The expenditure recorded for the year 1948-49 was as under :

	Gross expenditure on education	Government Grant	Percentage
District Boards	1,32,90,497	87,68,343	65.9
Urban Bodies	18,00,000	5,55,418	29.2
	1,51,86,497	93,23,761	61.3

(h) *Uttar Pradesh* :—The developments in the Uttar Pradesh are based on the principle of proportional grants. Under the existing orders, recurring grants for compulsory primary education are regulated as under :—

(i) *Municipalities* : Two-thirds of the extra recurring cost involved including the remitting of fees, and two-thirds³¹ of the total cost of bringing the minimum pay of primary teachers up to the minimum prescribed for district boards (provided the total government contribution does not exceed 60 per cent of the total cost).

(ii) *District Boards* : (1) The whole of the extra recurring cost in the case of boards receiving less than two-thirds expenditure until the total government assistance reaches two-thirds of the total expenditure; (2) two-thirds of the extra recurring cost in the case of those receiving more than two-thirds of their prescribed education expenditure; and (3) not more than two-thirds of the estimated cost of primary school buildings and initial equipment.

³¹With effect from the year 1948-49, the proportion has been raised to three-fourths of the additional cost of the sanctioned scheme.

The following table exhibits the growth of expenditure on primary education during the decennial period ending 1948-49 :

Year	Total expenditure	Net expenditure from local funds	Government grant
1948-49	2,06,43,381	55,93,690	1,34,75,152
1939-40	97,80,506	31,09,535	60,25,023
Increase	1,08,62,875 or 111·07%	24,84,155 or 79·88%	74,50,129 or 123·65%

It will be seen from the above figures that the growth of government grants has been greater than the growth of expenditure from local funds and U.P. may be said to lean more to the side of Bombay.

(i) *West Bengal* :—As in the Punjab, comparative statistics cannot be given for this state owing to partition.

(i) *Municipalities* :—There is no general rule for deciding grants to municipalities on account of primary education. Under the provisions of the Bengal Primary Education Act, 1919 (which applies to urban areas only), every municipality has to submit a statement showing particulars of the existing arrangements for imparting primary education, future requirements, the cost involved in the proposals and also the estimates of its existing and future income and expenditure. On the basis of these data, the government determines the financial assistance necessary in each case. Moreover, with the prior permission of the government, the municipalities may also introduce compulsion, and if the existing resources of any municipality are not sufficient to cover the cost of primary education, it may, with the previous sanction of the government, impose an "Education Cess" at a rate amounting to the sum required to meet the expenditure on primary education *plus* an additional 10 per cent to meet charges incidental to collection and non-realisation. In 1920, Mr. E. E. Biss, Officer on Special Duty, recommended that the government should bear half the cost of primary education. Though approved in theory, this principle has not been fully observed in practice, with the result that the share of expenditure on primary education now borne by municipalities is much greater than half. In 1948-49, for instance, the total expenditure of municipalities on education was Rs. 5,48,902 and the grants from the government amounted to Rs. 1,04,719, or about 20 per cent of the total expenditure.³²

³² It is not, however, known how much of this total expenditure was incurred incurred on secondary schools and on schools other than primary.

- (ii) *District Boards* :—These are governed by the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930, under whose provisions, the government gives them block-grants for expenditure on primary education. The recommendation of Mr. Biss that half the cost of primary education should be borne by the government applied to rural areas also and the government approved of it in relation to the districts of Burdwan and Howrah. The original intention was to extend the scheme to all the districts, but it has not been carried out.

A careful analysis of these developments will show—

- (1) that in every state, the total expenditure on primary education has risen very greatly owing partly to the rise in prices (which necessitated a revision of the emoluments of teachers) and partly to programmes of expansion and improvement;
- (2) that the burden of this increased expenditure has been shared both by local funds and by state revenues;
- (3) that owing to the limitations of local revenues, the greater part of this new financial burden has been borne by state funds (except in Madras where the proceeds of the education cess have shown a tremendous increase);
- (4) that the old basis of grants-in-aid to local bodies are proving useless under the stress of the present cost of living and the urgency of introduction of universal education; and
- (5) that the general trend of events was for state governments to assume the basic responsibility for financing primary education as the best means of meeting the situation³³.

In all these matters, the period from 1901-02 to 1921-22 closely resembles this period; but there is one significant difference. In the earlier period, the tendency was to increase the powers of local bodies in spite of the larger financial assistance given by the government. In this period, however, an attempt was made to make power follow the purse and to withdraw the authority delegated to local bodies. The change is mainly due to political considerations. Under the British rule, any reduction in the authority of local bodies was stoutly opposed because it was tantamount to a withdrawal of powers given to the Indian people. But this aspect is no longer there and the popular state governments of to-day are far less hesitant to curtail the powers of local bodies. Another reason for the change is the trend towards centralization which has been dominating all administrative planning during the last two decades.

³³There is, of course, the alternative method of enriching local bodies by assignments of larger resources so that they can make a greater contribution to the cost of primary education. But this has not been popular.

Village Panchayats : Another significant development of this period was the creation of village *panchayats*. Lord Ripon had suggested that the smallest unit for administration of local bodies in rural areas should be a *taluka* and that view had come to dominate the scene till about 1920. But owing to the emphasis that Mahatma Gandhi laid upon rural reconstruction, the government awakened to the necessity of creating local bodies for individual villages (or groups of villages) and legislation regarding village *panchayats* began to be passed in every State. The trend was greatly strengthened with the assumption of office by the Congress and to-day the consent of a self-sufficient (or at least autonomous) village has come to stay. Even the Constitution directs that every state "shall take steps to organise village *panchayats* and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government"⁸⁴.

This fundamental policy raises an important issue : What should be the powers of village *panchayats* in respect of primary education? An analysis of the different Village Panchayat Acts from this point of view has been given below :

(a) *Assam* :—Primary (basic and pre-basic) education is laid down as a duty of *panchayats*.

(b) *Bihar* :—Primary education is prescribed as a discretionary duty of *panchayats*.

(c) *Bombay* :—Every *panchayat* elects a school committee which has certain limited powers of supervision over local primary schools.

(d) *Madhya Pradesh* :—The spread of education is a discretionary duty of *panchayats*.

(e) *Madras* :—It is a discretionary duty of *panchayats* to establish and maintain primary schools.

(f) *Orissa* :—Spread of education and primary schools for boys and girls are prescribed as obligatory duties of *panchayats*.

(g) *Punjab* :—Primary education is not specified as a duty of village *panchayats* ; but the district boards may delegate some of their powers to them in respect of village schools if they so desire.

(h) *Uttar Pradesh* :—Establishing and maintaining primary schools is regarded as a duty of *panchayats*.

(i) *West Bengal* :—Union boards can establish, maintain primary schools of their own or give grants-in-aid to private schools.

It will thus be seen that there is a unanimity of opinion in holding that the village *panchayats* should have a hand in the administration of primary education. But in actual practice, very little has been achieved so far. The resources of the *panchayats* are very limited and it is not, therefore, possible for them to establish and maintain primary schools. Usually, therefore, nothing is done beyond allowing the *panchayats* to elect school committees (which have very meagre powers of

⁸⁴Art. 40.

supervision) and to try cases for violation of the Compulsory Education Act. Moreover, it must be remembered that there are still lakhs of villages without *panchayats*. It cannot, therefore, be denied that we have only touched the fringe of the problem of creating a local body in each village and of vesting it with adequate powers to supervise the local schools.

*5. The Role of Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education in Part B States :—*So far, the history of the role of the local bodies in the administration of primary education in Part A States only has been dealt with. In the case of Part B States, the problem is much simpler. The large majority of the erstwhile Indian states were so small that there was no place for local bodies in their administration. It is true that in bigger states, local bodies on the pattern of those in British India could have been organised and could have been entrusted with powers of control over primary education. But, owing mainly to the centralized and bureaucratic character of the administration in Indian states, the local bodies were organised only in a few states and that too, at a later date. Even where they were organised, they were not ordinarily entrusted with powers of control over primary education. No useful purpose will, therefore, be served by trying to trace, in detail, the historical evolution of the role of local bodies in education in Part B States. The following brief notes will serve the purpose :

(a) *Hyderabad :—*Local bodies have nothing to do with the administration of primary schools, except to provide funds in rural areas for the construction of buildings and the purchase of furniture and educational appliances.

(b) *Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Bharat, Pepsu, Saurashtra, Travancore-Cochin and Vindhya Pradesh :—*In all these States primary education is wholly administered by the State.

(c) *Mysore :—*Local bodies were given control over primary education in 1931 ; but as the system did not work satisfactorily, the powers delegated were withdrawn in 1941.

(d) *Rajasthan :—*Local bodies have same hand in the administration of primary education in the Bikaner division only ; but even here, the question of withdrawing powers from local bodies is under consideration. Local bodies in the rest of the state have nothing to do with primary education.

6. The Role of Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education in Part C States :—The following brief notes will show that here also the position is the same as in Part B States :

(a) *Ajmer* :—There are five municipalities, one cantonment board and one district board in this State. Two municipalities—Ajmer and Bewar—manage primary education in their areas. They pay 7.5 per cent of their revenues, to meet their cost and the rest is paid by the Government of India. The question of taking the primary schools of these two municipalities under the direct management of the Government of India is now under consideration. The other three municipalities have almost nothing to do with the administration of primary education. The Cantonment Board at Nasirabad used to give grant-in-aid to nine private schools within its area but has since stopped the payment. The District Board at Ajmer does nothing beyond contributing the salaries and pension contributions of 31 teachers employed in Government primary schools in the District.

(b) *Bhopal and Bilaspur* :—Local bodies are not at all concerned with education.

(c) *Coorg* :—There is a District Board and some municipalities. All these local bodies are entrusted with control and management of primary education and receive fixed grants from the Government of India.

(d) *Delhi* :—Delhi has been a centrally administered area since it became the capital of India during the British regime. After the new set-up, local bodies took upon themselves the responsibility of imparting primary education in their areas. Primary schools were opened and denominational bodies were also encouraged to start primary schools of their own. Growth of population in the State and greater availability of finances at the disposal of local bodies gave an impetus to the increase in the number of primary schools for boys and girls. Larger funds were set apart for education and the local bodies became more alive to their responsibility in this direction. This resulted in an increase in the number of primary schools in the State and before partition, all primary schools in the State were directly or indirectly run by the local bodies. All aided primary schools received grants-in-aid through the local bodies. In July 1950, all the primary schools under the District Board were taken over under the Directorate of Education, New Delhi.

(e) *Himachal Pradesh* :—This State comprises four Districts, viz., Mahasu, Mandi, Chamba and Sirmur. Local bodies are functioning only in the last district which has a District Board for rural areas and a Municipal Committee for the town of Nahan.

The District Board, Nahan, was constituted in the year 1885 by the then Ruler of the erstwhile Sirmur State. The control of all educational institutions, including the high schools for boys and girls in Nahan proper, was transferred to it, on its inception. Later on, the high schools were removed from the control of the District Board. In the year 1947, even the middle schools were removed from its control, and since then it has been controlling only the primary and lower middle schools situated in the rural areas. The middle and high schools are now under the control of the government.

The Municipal Committee, Nahan, came into existence in 1868, and its activities are since then confined to primary education for boys in the town of Nahan. Herein too, the government is maintaining a Primary Department attached to the High School at Nahan, as part of the High School, and the Municipal Committee is concerned with other primary schools for boys that it has opened in the town.

(f) *Kutch and Tripura* :—Local bodies are not concerned with education.

(g) *Manipur* :—There are no local bodies.

7. *General Conclusions* :—From the foregoing account of the changing role of local bodies in the administration of primary education, some important general conclusions at once become evident. In the first place, one finds that the different objectives in associating local bodies with the administration of primary education have been accorded a wrong priority. The primary aim of this measure ought to have been the decentralization of authority or the harnessing of local leadership to the cause of mass education. But neither of these objectives were properly stressed. Decentralization was started late and was carried out slowly and in a half-hearted manner ; and what is more, hardly has some real decentralization materialised when the wheels were turned back and attempts were made to centralize authority. Moreover, the British administration maintained a bureaucratic character right to the end—a feature which made it difficult, if not impossible, to build up a non-official or local leadership in the cause of primary education. This failure to emphasize fundamental issues was the main reason why the experiment did not yield desired results. Incidentally, it may be said that the two other minor aims of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education have succeeded fairly well. On the one hand local bodies have made a large financial contribution to the spread of primary education in the past, and even today, their contribution is fairly large and important. Especially in the days of economic depression, they have tried to fill up the gaps in state grants and to keep primary education going ahead. It would indeed be a bare statement of historical fact to say that, but for the valuable financial contributions of local bodies, primary education in India would not have made even that little progress which it shows today. The second object partly fulfilled was political, viz., the desire to transfer important social services to the Indian people as a method of diverting the public mind from direct political struggle ; but this object has naturally ceased to have any bearing on the problem since the attainment of independence.

The second general conclusion that becomes evident is the comparatively small scale and the half-hearted manner in which the experiment of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education seems to have been tried until now. In most of the Part B and C States, the administration of primary education is fully centralized and no attempt seems to have been made (except on a few occasions here and there) to associate local bodies with it. Even in Part A States, local

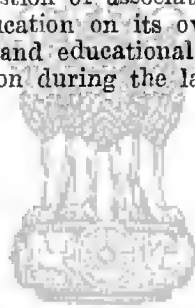
bodies were not properly democratised nor had they any effective voice in the administration of primary education until 1921. It was only in the first years under the dyarchy that local bodies were given a substantial measure of control over primary education. But hardly had the step been taken than an agitation was started to challenge its wisdom : the powers of local bodies were circumscribed in one way or another—especially through the powerful but indirect financial control exerted through grants-in-aid ; in some cases, they were even withdrawn or drastically reduced. Taking a bird's-eye view of the role of local bodies in the administration of primary education in India, as a whole, during the last hundred years, therefore, one cannot help feeling that the experiment has not had a fair trial.

The third general conclusion is that the problem of creating local bodies for administering primary education in rural areas has hardly been faced properly. At the advent of the British rule, every village enjoyed autarchy. It would have been easy for the British administration to retain this autarchy and to harness it to the spread of mass education. But this was not done and the centralized economy and administration created by British rulers, destroyed the village autarchy which had survived all political vicissitudes of the past and stood firm for centuries. Later on, the district came to be adopted as the unit for the administration of primary education in rural areas. But it was not realised that such administration was also centralized in character and that it differed from the centralization under the state, not in kind, but in degree. Attempts to revive village *panchayats* date from 1921 ; but as stated already, their potentialities to assist in the administration of primary education have not been fully exploited anywhere. In other words, the ideal method of harnessing local leadership in the cause of primary education in rural areas is yet to be discovered.

Fourthly, history also shows that the conditions which Lord Ripon laid down for the success of the experiment as early as 1882 were not fulfilled by later administrators. He made it quite clear that the new experiment would succeed only (a) if adequate resources were made available to local bodies ; (b) if the transfer of duties involving additional expenditure was simultaneously followed by transfer of additional and adequate resources ; and (c) if government officers set themselves to foster sedulously the small beginnings of the independent political life and came to realise that the system really opened to them a fairer field for the exercise of administrative and directive energy than the more autocratic system which it superseded. But unfortunately these directions were forgotten very soon. Throughout the last 100 years local bodies have remained financially poor. The transfer of such a costly responsibility as that of primary education ought to have been followed simultaneously by the transfer of sufficiently large resources to enable local bodies to discharge that responsibility. But no such steps were taken. At least liberal grants-in-aid ought to have been given ; but even this was not done and government grants have been neither liberal nor given on right principles. Moreover, the proper guidance or training that the officials were expected to give to Indians, in the management of local bodies, did not generally become available. On the whole, therefore,

it may be said without fear of contradiction that the conditions laid down by Lord Ripon for the successful working of the experiment of local self-government were never fully satisfied in practice, at least in so far as the administration of primary education is concerned.

Finally, history has disproved the view commonly held in certain quarters that the cause of primary education has suffered by its association with local bodies and that the one panacea to ensure satisfactory progress is to centralize its control in the State Department of Education. The foregoing review shows that, in Part B and C States, primary education is backward even in areas where it has always been administered on a centralized basis ; that even in Part A States, it made but poor progress prior to 1921 when its administration was practically centralized ; and that its progress was not hindered (in fact, it was accelerated in certain cases) after its transfer to full local control. It is not, of course, claimed that local bodies did not commit any mistakes or that they always rose to the occasion and did their duty efficiently. It is only suggested that to blame local bodies alone or even mainly for the slow progress of primary education is an over-simplification of a very complex problem and that it is not justified by history. It is, therefore, necessary to discuss the question of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education on its own merits without confusing it with the wider financial and educational issues involved in the slow progress of primary education during the last 150 years.



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CHAPTER III

A Critical Analysis of the Existing Relations between State Governments and Local Bodies in respect of Primary Education and Suggestions for Reform

From this brief historical survey of the role of local bodies in the administration of primary education, we shall now turn to a critical examination of the existing relations between the state governments and local bodies in respect of primary education and suggest some reforms with a view to improving the efficiency of administration and making the introduction and enforcement of universal, free, compulsory primary education, easier and more fruitful.

*Association of Local Bodies with State Governments in the Administration of Primary Education :—*The association of local bodies with the administration of primary education is not universal. The position is fairly satisfactory in Part A States. Assam is the only State which has withdrawn all powers from local bodies in respect of primary education while all the remaining eight states associate local bodies with the administration of primary education in some form or the other. In Part B States, it is only in the Bikaner Division of Rajasthan that local bodies conduct primary schools. Even here, a proposal to deprive local bodies of this authority is under consideration and in all the remaining eight states, the administration of primary education is conducted directly and exclusively by the State Education Departments. In Part C, four states (Ajmer, Coorg, Delhi and Himachal Pradesh) associate local bodies with the administration of primary education and the remaining six do not. Taking the Indian Union as a whole, therefore, it may be said that, out of a total of 28 States, 12 States (8 in Part A and 4 in Part C) associate local bodies with the administration of primary education, and 16 States (one in Part A, nine in Part B and six in Part C) do not. The question for discussion, therefore, is this : Should local bodies be associated with the administration of primary education in some form or the other, or should the administration of primary education be an exclusive responsibility of the State governments ?

Several reasons are advanced in favour of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education. Such association, it is argued, brings the schools closer to the communities they serve ; it harnesses local knowledge, local enthusiasm and local resources to the cause of mass education and furthers it materially ; it brings in additional finances to support primary education which it is neither possible

nor desirable for the State governments to forego and the loss of which would result in giving a great set-back to the spread of primary education ; it creates a multiple-source system of finance which works much better in practice than a single-source system¹ ; it leads to decentralization of authority which results in securing greater effectiveness and economy, especially when allied services like public health are decentralized and delegated to local bodies ; and that it is democratic in principle and trains leadership for public administration at local and even higher levels. Moreover, a comparative study of the administration of primary Education in the progressive countries of the world shows that the educational legislation of most nations leaves some room for initiative and activity on the part of local bodies and that, more often than not the task of local bodies in the field of education is very important.² In view of these cogent reasons which we generally accept and the widely prevalent practice of progressive nations, we feel that in India also *it would be an advantage to associate local bodies with the administration of primary education in some form or other*. We cannot, however, agree with the view put forward in certain quarters that the primary object of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education is to train leadership for public life. Education of the masses is a service of such vital and immediate importance and universal education is so essential a condition precedent to the success of democracy itself that we feel it absolutely wrong and fatal to national interests to make a guinea-pig of education for training leadership. There are several other fields where such training can be imparted with less disastrous consequences and the interests of the country would be served better by making local control in education *follow*, and not *precede*, the development of public education. We, therefore, strongly feel that the interests of mass education should be the only criteria to decide whether authority over primary education should be delegated to local bodies and if so, to what extent. We are recommending here that local bodies should be associated with the administration of primary education because we believe that such association would further the cause of mass education and bring the goal of universal education nearer ; and we shall be guided by the same consideration when, in the paragraphs that follow, we shall indicate the extent and manner of such association in detail.

Types of Local Bodies to be Associated with the Administration of Primary Education :—Which types of local bodies should be associated with the administration of primary education is the next question to be decided. The following table shows the different types of local bodies that

¹It will be recalled that this view is supported by the history of primary education in India. It has received further support in the deliberations of the *Fourteenth International Conference on Public Education*, 1951, which has recommended that "insofar as the country's financial structure permits, joint participation by the Central and local authorities in financing the plans may well be desirable, especially if participation by one party is made conditional on participation by another" (Recommendation No. 12). Our general recommendation here is also supported by a Committee appointed by the Government of Punjab in 1948 (*vide* Appendix B—13).

²*Local Authorities and Education* (Published by the International Union of of Punjab in 1948 (*vide* Appendix B—13)).

are at present associated with the administration of education in the different states of India :—

State	Local Bodies Associated in the Administration of Primary Education in	
	Urban Areas	Rural Areas
1. Ajmer	Some Municipalities [*] ..	District Board
2. Bihar	All Municipalities ..	1. District Boards 2. Local Boards 3. Union Boards and Committees 4. Village Panchayats
3. Bombay	1. Bombay Corporation .. 2. Authorized Municipalities ..	1. District Local Boards 2. District School Boards 3. Village Panchayats
4. Coorg	All Municipalities ..	District Board
5. Delhi	Municipal Committees.	
6. Himachal Pradesh ..	The Municipality of Nahan ..	District Board of Nahan
7. Madhya Pradesh ..	All Municipalities ..	Janapada Sabhas .
8. Madras	All Municipalities ..	1. District Boards 2. Village Panchayats
9. Punjab	All Municipalities ..	1. District Boards 2. Village Panchayats
10. Uttar Pradesh ..	All Municipalities ..	1. District Boards 2. Village Panchayats
11. West Bengal	All Municipalities	1. District School Boards 2. Union Boards and Committees 3. Panchayats

N.B.—The conditions in Orissa are peculiar. In the hilly tracts, no local bodies exist. In some parts, the Bihar Act and Rules apply and in others, those of Madras are applicable.

It will be seen that every municipality is entrusted with a share in the administration of primary education in all States except in two : Bombay and Delhi. In the former, only the bigger municipalities are authorized to administer primary education in their areas. The smaller municipalities pay for their share of the cost of primary education but have no voice in their management, except that they have the privilege in cooperation with some other similar non-authorized municipalities, of

^{*}Throughout this chapter, the word "Municipality" is broadly used so as to include a Corporation, a Borough Municipality, a District Municipality, a Town Committee, a Cantonment Board, a Hill Station Committee, a Notified Area Committee etc,

electing a representative on the district school board. They cannot even appoint a school committee—a right which has been conferred on village *panchayats* as well. In Delhi, only two municipalities manage primary schools and the question of depriving them of their powers in this regard is under consideration. In the rural areas, the District Board is the largest unit adopted in all states except in Delhi where it has been recently deprived of its powers over primary education and Madhya Pradesh where it no longer exists as a unit of general administration. In Bombay the District School Board functions in addition to the District Local Board, while in West Bengal the District School Boards are fully self-contained units. The smallest unit is the village *panchayat* which has been associated with the administration of primary education in all States except Ajmer, Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh⁴. In between these come *Local Boards* which are formed for a sub-division and exist in Bihar only; *Janapadas* which generally correspond to *talukas* in area and exist in Madhya Pradesh only; and *Union Boards and Committees* which exist in West Bengal and Bihar.

For convenience of discussion, the problem can be studied separately for municipal and non-municipal areas :

- (a) *Municipal Areas* :—The most common practice is to associate all municipalities with the administration of primary education. This is a sound administrative practice. When it is granted that all village *panchayats* should be associated with the administration of primary education and when *ad hoc* school committees are appointed to supervise the local schools even in the small villages where *Panchayats* do not exist, there is no reason why all municipalities should not also be associated with the administration of primary schools in their areas, especially as competent local personnel is more readily available in municipalities and their contribution to primary education is far larger than that of *Panchayats*. We cannot, therefore, support the Bombay practice where non-authorized municipalities pay one-third of the expenditure on primary education incurred in their areas and have nothing to do with the local schools except electing a representative to the District School Board along with some other similar municipalities in the district and we also feel that the 16 States which do not associate municipalities with the administration of primary education at present are losing valuable local cooperation and substantial revenues for the support of primary education. We, therefore, recommend that all municipalities should be associated with the administration of primary schools in their areas and should be made to pay a specified contribution to support them.

⁴In Bengal, there is no Panchayat Act but traditional Panchayats exist and can be given some powers under Section 51 of the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930. In Bihar, *Panchayats* can be given authority over primary education under Section 15 of the Village Panchayat Raj Act, 1948; but no action has so far been taken under it.

This recommendation should not, however, be taken to imply that all municipalities should have the same authority over primary education. The capacity to contribute for primary education as well as the efficiency to administer it vary greatly from one type of municipality to another. At one end, we have small district municipalities or notified area committees which are hardly different from village *panchayats*; and at other, we have the city corporations like Bombay which have ample resources and which can be relied upon to administer the powers entrusted to them with very high efficiency. It, therefore, follows as a corollary that the role to be assigned to a municipality in the administration of primary education should vary in the light of these two factors. We, therefore, recommend that varying degrees of independent authority over primary education should be vested in different municipalities on the broad basis of the extent of their contribution to the cost of primary education in their areas and their general administrative efficiency.

- (b) *Non-Municipal Areas* :—Here the first point to be decided is the number of tiers that the system of local bodies should have. Lord Ripon had suggested a two-tier system with the district as the principal unit and the *taluka* as the lower unit. Later on, when the idea of village *panchayats* came to be accepted, a third tier was automatically added to the system; but some states went back to the two-tier system by abolishing either the district or the *taluka* as administrative units. In Bihar, however, a three-tier system had already existed and the creation of village *panchayats* has created a fourth tier. The following table shows how different types of local bodies in rural areas have been associated with the administration of primary education in Part A States in two—, three—, or four-tier system :—

State	Local Body associated with primary education is constituted for			
	An individual village or a small group of villages	A fairly large group of villages	A <i>taluka</i> or a sub-division	A district
1. Bihar ..	1. Village Panchayats.	2. Union Boards or Committees.	3. Local Boards	4. District Boards.
2. Bombay ..	Do.	2. District School Boards.
3. Madhya Pradesh.	1. Janapada Sabhas.	..
4. Madras ..	1. Village Panchayats.	2. District Boards.
5. Punjab ..	Do.	Do.
6. Uttar Pradesh	Do.	Do.
7. West Bengal	..	1. Union Boards or Committees.	..	2. District School Boards.

It will be seen that a two-tier system is most commonly adopted. On a careful examination of the whole question we feel that it is the best measure and should be universally resorted to. The single-tier system of Madhya Pradesh is hardly of any practical use because a *taluka* is too big an area as a *primary* unit for associating local bodies with the administration of primary education. On the other hand, the larger the number of tiers, the greater would be the influence of red-tape ; and the expense and inefficiency would increase in proportion. In Bombay, when the three tiers of district, *taluka* and village existed, it was found that the *taluka* either became too weak or hindered the growth of village *panchayats*. It was, therefore, abolished and a two-tier system is now giving far more satisfactory results. In Bihar, the four-tier system exists only in name because no village *panchayat* has yet been given authority over primary education. Even the three-tier system is not functioning very satisfactorily and we feel that the adoption of a two-tier system would greatly improve matters. We, therefore, recommend that, in rural areas, a two-tier system of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education should be adopted everywhere.

What should these tiers be is the next question. Obviously, *the lower tier or the primary unit should be the village panchayat* which should be constituted for individual villages or for a small group of contiguous villages. A *panchayat*, be it noted, corresponds to the French *commune* or the typical American School Board and when associated with the administration of primary education brings the rural school in the closest contact with the local community. Experience has shown that the village people have now begun to take keen interest in education and are mobilising their own resources in support of local schools in a manner and to an extent that could not have been thought possible some years ago. This view is remarkably borne out by the excellent work done for local primary schools by the villagers of the Sholapur District in the Bombay State and in the Punjab⁵ and we have no doubt that similar response can be evoked, if the proper approach is made, in other parts as well. It would, therefore, be both complying with the requirements of Article 40 of the Constitution and helping the cause of primary education materially if the village people are associated with the administration of the schools that serve them. We, therefore, recommend that the residents of the rural area served by a primary school should be associated with its administration in some form or other. This may be done by giving village *panchayats* the right to supervise the schools in their area in the prescribed manner ; and where such *panchayats* do not exist, by establishing ad hoc school committees of prominent and interested local residents for the purpose⁶.

⁵Vide Appendices B(1) and B(2) for details.

⁶As will be seen from the above table, this is already the order of the day everywhere except in Madhya Pradesh and Bengal. The principle seems to have been accepted in Madhya Pradesh, although no effect is given to it in practice. In Bengal, Union Boards or Committees have a fairly large area under their jurisdiction and a population of 20,000 or so. This is obviously too big to be a primary unit. In 20 States which do not associate Village *Panchayats* with Local Schools (or where *panchayats* do not exist), the acceptance of the recommendation does not involve any practical difficulties.

Whether the second and the larger unit of the two-tier system should be a *taluka* or a district is a matter for controversy. As things stand at present, the district is more commonly accepted as the second unit. A feeling has, however, grown in recent years to the effect that a district is too big an area even for a second unit and that it would be desirable to replace it by a smaller unit like a *taluka*. The most notable experiment undertaken from this point of view is the *Janapada Sabhas* of Madhya Pradesh. Here, the district ceases to exist as a unit for purposes of educational administration and a *Janapada* (which roughly corresponds to a *Taluka*) becomes the one and the only unit for the association of local bodies with the administration of primary education.⁷ A second group of experiments retains the district as the main unit but tries to go back to a sort of three-tier system by creating new local bodies at the *taluka* level. In Madras, for instance, the *taluka* was the principal unit of administration till 1934 when it was abandoned in favour of the larger district unit. Now a scheme is under consideration according to which some local organizations will be evolved at the *taluka* level and associated with the administration of primary education. In Bombay also, a similar proposal is accepted, though in a restricted manner, and district school boards are permitted to form *taluka* advisory committees. But none of these experiments has succeeded. The *Janapada* experiment of Madhya Pradesh is defective from several points of view. It increases costs; it involves the lowering of administrative efficiency because the salaries that a government can afford to pay at the *taluka* level are necessarily low and can buy only a lower type of administrative talent; this lower standard of its officers makes large delegation of powers neither possible nor desirable with the result that the sphere of the State Government and the extent of centralization increases rather than decreases; and it becomes so close a supervising authority that the growth of village *panchayats* is more likely to be stunted than helped. Similarly, not much can be said in favour of the Bombay experiment of *taluka* advisory committees. These are not functioning satisfactorily nor are they likely to do so in future. The Madras proposal is only an idea at present; but, judged from the experience in other states, it is difficult to feel enthusiastic about its success. Moreover, both the Madras and Bombay experiments hark back to the three-tier system which has been found to be unsatisfactory. None of these experiments, therefore, shows that there is any advantage in adopting the *taluka* as a unit in addition to (or in place of) the district. What attracts reformers to a *taluka* is its manageable size and the existence of a fairly competent local leadership. But these advantages are more than nullified by the increase in costs, administrative inefficiency and centralization that inevitably accompany it. We cannot, therefore, either on general considerations or on the basis of actual experiments, support the adoption of the *taluka* as a second unit. We, therefore, recommend that, as a rule the district should be adopted as the second and the larger unit in the two-tier system of local bodies that has been suggested for association in the administration of primary education in rural areas.

3. *Creation of Educational Bodies* :—When the local bodies to be associated with the administration of primary education are decided,

⁷In the case of merged states, the area of each state is regarded as a *Janapada*.

the next question to be considered is this: Should these local bodies exercise their powers over primary education direct or should they exercise them through educational bodies and/or officers associated with them?

In recent years, two trends are distinctly seen in the administration of local bodies. The first is the trend to appoint specialised committees connected with the parent local body and consisting of members of the local body as well as a few outsiders. When the total volume of work entrusted to a local body is small and its services are in the early stages of development, there is no need for specialisation and all functions are supervised by all members of the local body. But as soon as the work begins to increase and the level of administrative performance rises, the need of specialisation is felt and special bodies like Finance Committee, Sanitary Committee, and Education Committee begin to be formed. As the expert personnel required for these specialised activities is not necessarily available among the members of the local body, outsiders are appointed to these committees in fixed proportions. The second is the trend to appoint expert officials to assist the local bodies in the discharge of their responsibilities and to delegate to them some of the administrative powers previously vested in local bodies. Modern administration has become so strenuous and complex a task that, at a certain stage, it is in the public interest to restrict the function of a local body to deliberation, policy-drafting and the exercise of a few key-controls and to leave all the details of administrative work to properly trained and salaried staff. We believe that the administration of primary education is so complex and specialised an affair that, in smaller municipalities and village *panchayats* it would be desirable to have at least a special committee associated with a local body, having authority over primary education and, at the district level and in bigger municipalities, to have both a special Committee and a special officer associated with the local body. We therefore, recommend that (a) in all village *panchayats* and smaller municipalities which have been given only a limited control over primary education, the local body should be required to elect a school committee and to delegate to it the task of supervising the local school or schools, and that (b) in district local boards and in bigger municipalities which exercise wider powers over primary education there, a school board should be constituted and charged with the responsibility of looking after its educational powers, as well as an Administrative Officer having adequate authority to carry on the day-to-day administration of its primary schools.

This recommendation raises three further issues, viz. :

- (a) What should be the relation between the parent local body and the educational body connected with it? Should it be of the dependent or of the independent type?
- (b) What should be the composition and powers of the educational bodies? and
- (c) What should be the status and powers of the Administrative Officer of the educational body?

(a) *The Dependent and the Independent Systems* :—On the basis of the relationship between the parent local body and the educational

body, the system is called either the "dependent" or the "independent" one. The distinction between these two types is clearly explained in the following passage by Russell and Judd :

"Two different types of school organization are found in the American educational system. One type is known as the *Dependent System*, in which the schools are organised as a branch of local government, and are responsible ultimately to a central direction in the same way as the department of parks, police and fire departments, and other branches of local government. The other type, known as the *Independent System*, maintains no connection whatever between the schools and the other branches of local government, except possibly in the appointing of school board members. The distinction between these two types of systems is seen most clearly in the manner in which taxes for the schools are raised and the amount to be spent on schools is determined. If the school board must submit its request for financial support to the city council, board of aldermen, or some other agency which has power to change the amounts, then the organization is a dependent one. If the school board is given authority to levy its taxes directly and no other agency has power to lower the amount requested, the system is an independent one."⁸

In India, the dependent system is more popular and has been adopted everywhere except in two instances : the District School Boards of Bengal and Bombay.

Regarding the relative merits of the two systems, the American experience does not lead to any definite conclusions. As Russell and Judd observe :

"Sharp differences of opinion prevail with respect to the merits of the two types of system. Political scientists in general favour a unified type of local government, and thus from their point of view the dependent type of school system seems the more satisfactory. They point out that only by the centralization of responsibility can good government be achieved. To divide up the responsibility for keeping taxes low and for maintaining public services at a satisfactory level of efficiency is very likely to make it impossible for the citizens of the community to keep proper check and control over their governmental services.

Educators, as has already been noted, strongly favour the independent type of school system. The underlying motive for this attitude seems to be the fear of what is called political domination of the schools. It is obvious that the school system in a democracy must not become a tool of any political group or party. Educators maintain that only by divorcing the school system completely from the local government with its political control can the necessary services to democratic government be performed.

⁸ Russell and Judd : The American Education System—1940, p. 142.

In addition to this argument for the independent type of school system, there is the theoretical argument, stated earlier that schools are a branch of the state government, and therefore cannot be subject to the same type of local control as most of the other functions of local government. It is pointed out, for example, that if the city chooses to neglect its park service, or its fire protection service, only the citizens of that community will suffer ; but if the community neglects its schools, all the state and indeed all the rest of the country suffer, for many of the children whose education is neglected will not remain in the community where they were reared. This argument is not a particularly compelling one, for there are many other services of local government, such as health, sanitation, and police protection, which, if neglected, will be detrimental to the citizens of other communities.

Thus far scientific studies have not been definitely convincing with respect to the merits of the two types of educational organization. Examples of well-managed and effective school systems can be found under both the dependent and independent types of organization, and neither type seems to offer a guarantee against ineffectiveness in the school system. Perhaps the only conclusion that can be drawn at this stage is that good administration and competent personnel are more important factors than the formal organization of the school system".⁹

In view of the conditions in India, however, we are definitely of the opinion that an independent system would be preferable. At the same time, we realise that this proposal involves grave financial issues. *We, therefore, recommend that the State Governments should consider adopting the independent system ; but if that is not possible for some reason or the other, they should at least specify the composition and powers of the educational bodies in the manner indicated in the next paragraph.*

(b) *Composition and Powers of Educational Bodies* :—Under the independent system, it is absolutely essential to specify, in detail, the composition and powers of the educational bodies. But this is not absolutely essential under the dependent system. Consequently, the practice in the states which have adopted the dependent system shows wide variations in this respect. This will be clear from the instances given below :

Dependent System

1. *Ajmer* :—Here only municipalities have been associated with the administration of primary education. They appoint education committees under their principal Acts which exercise such functions and perform such duties as are delegated to them by the municipalities.

⁹*Russell and Judd* :—The American Educational System, 1940, pp. 142—144.

2. *Bihar* :—In the case of district boards, Education Committee is elected at a meeting of the General Body and consists of—

- (a) the District Inspector of Schools ;
- (b) not more than four members of the District Board ; and
- (c) not more than three persons who may be of either sex and who are not members of the District Board, but who in the opinion of the District Board possess special qualifications for serving on the committee provided that at least one member of the committee shall be a Muhammadan. (The State Government have also held that in places where qualified women are available, at least one woman should be appointed as a member of the Education Committee of local bodies).

The Education Committee shall, subject to the control of the District Board and to any rules made under this Act :

- (a) superintend all matters connected with the finance, accounts, maintenance and management of all schools maintained by the District Board ; and
 - (b) determine the conditions on which grants may be made in aid of other schools.
- (2) The *local boards* have education committees similar to the above.
- (3) The *union committees* do not probably have any education committees.
- (4) The *union boards* probably have education committees in practice although they are not specifically provided for in law.

(5) *Municipalities* :—These have education committees which consist of not less than three, nor more than six, commissioners and of any person of either sex who is not a commissioner, but who may, in the opinion of the commissioners, possess special qualification for serving on such a committee provided that the number of persons who are not commissioners shall not exceed one-third of the total number of the members of each committee. The education committees perform such duties and exercise such powers as may be delegated to them by the parent body.

3. *Bombay* :—Here the dependent system is followed, as in West Bengal, in the municipal areas only. The School Board is elected by the municipality but a member of the School Board need not necessarily be a member of the municipality. It consists of not less than 12 or more than 16 members. Of these, not less than two or more than three shall be nominated (these include an official as well). Seats are also reserved for minorities, women, backward communities and the non-authorized municipalities (if any) whose schools may be managed by the parent body. Some educational qualifications are also prescribed for the members. The School Board exercises all the educational powers of the parent body and is autonomous in almost all matters except those which involve questions of finance.

4. *Coorg, Delhi and Himachal Pradesh* :—No educational bodies are set up and the local bodies perform their functions direct.

5. *Madhya Pradesh* :—There are no specific provisions regarding education committees associated with municipalities.

In *Janapada Sabhas*, the Standing Education Committee consists of four to six persons elected by the members of the *Janapada Sabhas* from amongst themselves. Its powers are as follows:

- (1) to perform the duties of the *Sabha* under clause (i) of sub-section (1) of section 49 of the Act ;
- (2) to manage and control the educational institutions of the *Sabha* ;
- (3) to deal with applications, receive the grant-in-aid to schools and other institutions for the promotion of education ;
- (4) to arrange for the training of teachers ;
- (5) to decide such cases in respect of teachers and other educational staff and members in disciplinary matters as may come up to it under the rules ;
- (6) to expend and supervise the expenditure of the budget provision under the head " Education " except the provisions for construction and repairs ;
- (7) to decide generally all questions regarding the opening and closing of schools, supply of furniture and other contingent expenses exceeding Rs. 100 ;
- (8) to draw up a list of holidays to be observed in schools within the *Janapada* area ;
- (9) to fix dates for examinations and give directions for the conduct of examinations in *Janapada* schools ;
- (10) to see that the stock books and list of equipments are properly maintained ; and
- (11) to manage cattle-ponds.

6. *Madras* :—The Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920, recognizes for its purpose only the Municipal Council or the District Board and not any educational body associated with them. In practice, however, these local bodies appoint education committees to assist and advise them. They have, therefore, very limited powers derived under delegation. For instance the powers, duties, and functions of the education committees of district boards are given below :

1. The Committee shall examine and submit proposals to the District Board (a) for the establishment of elementary schools and (b) for the closure of elementary schools where they are not considered necessary.
2. The Committee may frame proposals for the consideration of the District Board regarding the general educational policy of the Board.

3. The Committee shall select text books from the list approved by the Madras Text Book Committee for secondary as well as for elementary schools under the control of the District Board.

4. The Committee shall also exercise the following powers :

- (a) the power to sanction non-recurring expenditure of a petty character up to Rs. 100/- in the case of elementary schools and up to Rs. 250/- in the case of secondary schools provided that this power is not exercised in respect of expenditure debitable to the Elementary Education Fund where such debit requires the approval of the Government or the Director of Public Instruction under existing rules or orders ;
- (b) the power to sanction the refund of school fees subject to the existence of budget provision ;
- (c) the power to approve indents for furniture and equipment for elementary and secondary schools subject to the existence of budget provision and in consultation with the inspecting officers of the Education Department ; this power carries with it also the power to approve the rates for the articles to be supplied ;
- (d) the power to fix the wages of menial establishments in schools paid out of contingencies, subject to the condition that the previous approval of a competent authority is obtained for employing the menials ; and
- (e) the power to write off unserviceable articles to schools.

7. *Punjab* :—Different local bodies in this State have different machineries to perform their functions in respect of primary education. The district boards perform these functions through the agency of the inspecting staff of the Education Department by delegating to them certain powers under Articles 46 and 48 of the Punjab Education Code. The inspecting staff's main duty is to inspect the primary schools maintained by the district boards and advise the boards in all educational matters relating to primary education including the framing of budget. In the case of urban committees also the position is the same in so far as the inspection of schools goes. In the case of some urban committees, however, they have entrusted certain functions regarding the appointments and transfers of teachers in the schools to the executive officers under the Executive Officers Act.

8. *Uttar Pradesh* :—In municipalities, education committees are appointed under rule 104 of the Municipal Board Act of 1916. They are advisory bodies and exercise only such powers as are delegated to them.

In district boards, the Act of 1932 provided for a Statutory Committee. This was abolished by the amendment made in 1948 and now the position in district boards is analogous to that in municipalities.

9. *West Bengal* :—Here the dependent system is followed in municipal areas only and the composition and powers of the educational body are defined as follows :

“ 456. In every municipality there shall be constituted an Education Committee consisting of—

- (a) an educational officer or other person interested in education appointed by the local government ;
- (b) not less than two, or more than four Commissioners appointed from among themselves by the Commissioners at a meeting ; and
- (c) not more than three residents of the municipality, not being Commissioners, appointed by the Commissioner at a meeting.

457. It shall be the duty of Education Committee, subject to the control of the Commissioners at a meeting and to the rules made by the local government—

- (i) to superintend all matters connected with the finance, accounts, maintenance and management of all schools, libraries and museums maintained by the Commissioners, and
- (ii) to determine the conditions to be complied with when grants are made by the Commissioners to schools, libraries and museums ”.

A careful comparison of these provisions will show that the subject of the composition and powers of education bodies under a dependent system has not received the attention it deserves and that its actual position varies from a statutory body having large powers (as in Bombay) to a total refusal to recognize its very existence. This is not in the best interests of education. *We, therefore, recommend that in all cases where a local body is associated with the administration of primary education, specific statutory provisions should be made for the appointment of an allied educational body and its composition, powers and duties should be clearly specified.*

In so far as the composition of such bodies is concerned, we make the following recommendations :—

- (1) it should be of a fairly manageable size. In villages, it may consist of three to seven members ; in the smaller municipalities of five to nine members ; and in the bigger municipalities and district boards of 12 to 16 members ;
- (2) persons who are not members of the parent body should be eligible to be appointed to educational bodies ;
- (3) it is desirable to prescribe some educational qualifications for persons to be appointed to or elected on educational bodies. The nature of these qualifications will have to be defined with reference to local conditions ;
- (4) at the district level, provision should be made for the District Educational Inspector to be an ex-officio member of the educational body ;

- (5) in villages, no detailed conditions regarding the composition of the educational body need be laid down. But in municipal areas and at the district level, representation in the educational bodies should be given to :
 - (a) minorities, i.e. the people speaking any recognised language other than the language of the majority of the residents in the area, provided that the number of such people is larger than a prescribed percentage of the population of the area as a whole ;
 - (b) women ;
 - (c) backward communities ; and
 - (d) experts in education ;
- (6) the term of office of the educational bodies should be co-extensive with that of the parent body. It should not be appointed from year to year as is sometimes done ;
- (7) as a rule, the reserved seats should not exceed one-third of the total number of members ; and
- (8) in so far as the powers of educational bodies are concerned, we feel that they should have complete internal autonomy except in matters of finance where the sanctions will have to be obtained from the parent body. The relationship between the authorized municipalities and their school boards in the State of Bombay is a good model to follow in this case.

Independent System

In the case of the Independent System, it is essential, by the very nature of the case, to prescribe, in detail, the powers and composition of the educational bodies. No specific recommendations are, therefore, needed here, and the following description is given for information only.

1. *Bombay* :—Here the composition of the District School Boards is exactly similar to that of the Municipal School Boards which is described earlier. Their powers are not, however, as extensive as those of the Municipal School Boards. They are enumerated below :

- “ 13. (1) Subject to the provisions of the Act and the rules made thereunder, the District School Board shall have control over all approved schools within the district and may grant aid to any approved school other than a primary school maintained by the Provincial Government or by a school board or by an authorized municipality ;
- (2) subject to the provisions of this Act and the rules made thereunder, and so far as its primary education fund will allow, the District School Board shall perform the following duties and functions :—
 - (a) to provide for the welfare of the children attending primary schools ;

- (b) to maintain an adequate number of primary schools;
 - (c) to provide adequate accommodation and equipment for primary schools ;
 - (d) to maintain an adequate staff of assistant administrative officers, supervisors, attendance officers, clerks, teachers, inferior servants and other staff as may, in the opinion of the Provincial Government, be necessary ;
 - (e) to maintain an adequate number of engineering staff required for the construction and maintenance of schools and other buildings ;
 - (f) to determine, on the recommendation of the Administrative Officer, the distance measured according to the nearest road between an approved school and the residence of a child for purposes of clause (c) under section 33 ;
 - (g) to determine, with the approval of the Educational Inspector the hours of instruction and the number and duration of vacations ;
 - (h) to determine the exact location of primary schools ;
 - (i) to grant, on the recommendation of the Administrative Officer, exemption from attending an approved school, to a child who is receiving instruction otherwise than in an approved school ;
 - (j) to sanction all tenders for the supply of forms, stationery, furniture or equipment ;
 - (k) to suggest the opening of additional schools for the sanction of the Provincial Government ;
 - (l) to recommend to the Director such modifications in the curriculum as may seem necessary to suit local requirements ;
 - (m) to advise the Provincial Government generally in respect of primary education within the district ;
 - (n) to carry on propaganda for the expansion of primary education ; and
 - (o) to perform such other duties and functions as may be prescribed.
- (3) The District School Board shall, from time to time, with the sanction of the Director, make regulations not inconsistent with the provisions of this Act and the rules made thereunder for
- (i) laying down the days, the time and the periods on each day during which a child shall be present for instruction at an approved school ;
 - (ii) determining the constitution, powers and duties of the *taluka* advisory committees ; and
 - (iii) the supply of books, slates, educational requisites, milk, meals or clothes to children of any age receiving primary education, if provision for such a supply is made "

2. *West Bengal* :—Here the School Boards have all powers except in matters of inspection and training of teachers which are regarded as State functions. Their composition is rather unique and is given in Sections 6 and 6A of the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930, which are quoted below :

“ 6. When this section comes into force in any district, the Provincial Government shall establish for such district a District School Board consisting of the following members :

(a) the District Magistrate, (ex-officio) :

provided that, on the expiration of two terms of four years mentioned in sub-section (2) of section 10 after the first establishment of the Board, the District Magistrate shall cease to be an ex-officio member of the Board ;

(b) the Sub-Divisional Magistrates, (ex-officio) ;

(c) the District Inspector of Schools, (ex-officio) ;

(d) the Chairman of the Local Board, (ex-officio) ;

(e) the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman of the District Board, (ex-officio) ;

(f) as many members as there are sub-divisions in the district to be elected in the prescribed manner by the members of the District Board ;

provided that the number shall in no case be less than two :

(g) one member for each sub-division to be elected in the prescribed manner by the members of the Union Boards, Union Committees and *Panchayats* within the sub-division ;

(h) as many members as there are sub-divisions in the district to be appointed by the Provincial Government ;

provided that the number shall in no case be less than two :

(i) in addition to the members referred to in clause (h), two members who shall belong to the Scheduled Castes to be appointed by the Provincial Government ; and

(j) one teacher of a primary school to be appointed by the Provincial Government for the first term of four years referred to in sub-section (2) of section 10 and thereafter to be elected in the prescribed manner by the teachers of primary schools possessing the prescribed qualifications ; and

provided that no person shall be eligible for election under this clause who is not entitled to vote at such election.

6A. “ In any district in which Local Boards do not exist, clause (d) of section 6 shall be deemed to be omitted, and in clause (g) of that section, for the words ‘ one member ’ the words ‘ two members ’, and in the proviso to the said clause for the word ‘ two ’ the word ‘ three ’ shall be deemed to be substituted ”.

One interesting feature of the Bengal system is the representation given to primary teachers. We are conscious of the fact that such representation is demanded by teachers in all parts of India and we also feel that it would be an educational advantage to associate experienced primary teachers with the administration of the educational bodies. We, therefore, recommend that representation to primary teachers should be given on the educational bodies connected with district boards and the larger municipalities. The exact manner of giving such representation may be fixed in view of local conditions. But generally speaking, we suggest that recognised associations of primary teachers may be allowed to elect a representative.¹⁰

(c) *Administrative Officers* :—Administrative officers need not be appointed in the case of those local bodies where the delegation of authority is small and where the administrative work connected with the educational functions transferred is neither heavy nor complex. The village *panchayats* and the smaller municipalities will not, therefore, need administrative officers. The question of their appointment will arise only in the case of the larger municipalities and the district school boards. The existing practices in this respect are summarised below :

1. *Ajmer* :—The Convenor of the Education Sub-Committee can inspect schools, recommend appointments, transfers, dismissals, etc. from teachers up to the Chairman, and exercise administrative control over the municipal schools. He is a non-official.

2. *Bihar* :—All executive authority in educational matters is vested in the Education Committee and is exercised by the Chairman. This method of concentrating all administrative authority, as well as responsibility, in non-official honorary workers, has given rise to serious complaints. At the time of the Hartog Committee, the most severe criticism of the administration of primary education by local bodies came from Bihar¹¹ and even today, serious allegations are being made. It is said that the teachers are harassed in many ways : they are not paid regularly ; promotion to head-teachership is not given on accepted principles ; leave is often not sanctioned in time ; and teachers are often removed from service without due consideration. The experience in Bihar conclusively establishes the need of appointing Administrative Officers and making them responsible for the administrative details and control of staff.

¹⁰The following terminology will be adopted to distinguish the different Educational Bodies from one another :

1. In the case of corporations, the educational body will be called an *Educational Committee*.
2. In the case of district boards and authorized municipalities, the educational bodies will be called *school boards*.
3. In smaller and non-authorized municipalities, the educational bodies will be called *town school committees*.
4. In rural areas, the educational bodies will be called *village school committees*.

The nomenclature is obviously arbitrary and has been adopted here mainly on grounds of convenience.

¹¹Report, pp. 323-24.

3. *Bombay* :—Under the Act of 1923, the appointment of an Administrative Officer was obligatory but it was made by the School Board. He was a servant of the local authority. Experience of the practical working of the Act showed that this provision deprived the administrative officers of their back-bone. Very often they were unable to exercise even those powers which were vested in them by law and became glorified head clerks while the real power was rested with the Chairman or the men behind the School Board. Hence the Act was amended in 1938 and the administrative officers were made servants of the government and their powers and duties were defined in detail. Under the Act of 1947, also, this position has been continued.

It is also worthy of note that, in the city of Bombay, all authority in educational matters was vested in the Schools Committee (under the Act of 1920) although, in practice, a whole-time officer, called the Secretary, was appointed. The system did not function properly, with the result that the Corporation itself moved the government to amend the Act and vest all administration in the municipal commissioner—a reform which has been recently carried out.

4. *Coorg and Delhi* :—No administrative officers are appointed.

5. *Himachal Pradesh* :—There is no specific delegation of powers made by the District Board to the District Inspector of Schools for the administration and control of the district board institutions. The District Inspector of Schools, however, is an ex-officio member of the District Board, and the Chairman disposes of all questions relating to the appointment, promotion, leave, dismissal and transfer, etc. of the teacher employed in the district board schools, in consultation with the District Inspector of Schools. The Municipal Committee, Nahan, however, exercises its authority independently and the District Inspector of Schools is not ordinarily consulted.

6. *Madhya Pradesh* :—The appointment of administrative officers is not obligatory on the municipalities under the Statute and no rules have been specified by the municipal committees for such appointments.

In the *Janapada Sabhas*, which have not so far appointed any administrative officers, the Sub-Divisional Officer is the Chief Executive Officer and the *Janapada Sabha* is mainly a deliberative and policy-making body. But the defects of the situation are two : (1) He is not an expert educationist. He consults his education officer, no doubt, but at the *taluka* level, the education officers cannot have the necessary calibre ; and (2) he has so much work connected with so many departments to do that he can hardly spare the time and thought that educational problems need.

7. *Madras* :—The appointment of administrative officers (called education officers) is not obligatory, but permissible. A few municipal councils and the Corporation of Madras employ their own officers for supervisory work. So far as the district boards are concerned, there is provision for the appointment of a District Board Educational Officer who will be in charge of elementary education section. All district boards have

not utilised the services of such an officer. The functions of the latter are confined to the administrative aspects of primary schools under their control and they are required to be in constant consultation with the inspecting officers of the Department.

8. *Punjab* :—In the district boards, no separate administrative officers are appointed ; but powers are delegated to inspecting officers of the Education Department. In municipal areas, some municipalities have delegated powers regarding control of staff to their executive officers.

9. *West Bengal* :—The appointment of the administrative officer is not obligatory under the Statute. Section 26 of the Bengal (Rural) P.E. Act only states that “ subject to the prescribed conditions, a Board may appoint such staff of Officers and Servants, other than Inspectors, as it may consider necessary ”. The State Government has, however, adopted a rule making the District Educational Officer, the Secretary of the District School Board.

It will be seen from the foregoing analysis that the modern trend is to appoint whole-time trained officials to look after the administration of primary education in all cases where its volume and complexity justify it. The old method of requiring honorary non-officials to do the job still survives in some instances as an anachronism, but is not yielding happy results. *We, therefore, recommend that the appointment of administrative officers should be obligatory under the Statute in the case of all district school boards and the larger municipalities.*

There is not much controversy on this issue. But whether the administrative officers should be servants of the government or of the local authority concerned is a hotly debated point. On grounds of democracy, decentralization and autonomy it is claimed that they should be servants of the local bodies whereas the opposite view is supported mainly on educational grounds. In Bombay where this controversy is very keen, the administrative officers are ordinarily government servants, but the authority to appoint them can also be delegated to the larger municipalities. Sections 21 and 22 of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, run as follows :—

21. *Administrative officer* :—(1) For every school board there shall be an Administrative Officer. He shall be the Chief Executive Officer of the board ; his powers and duties shall be as prescribed.

(2) The Administrative Officer shall be appointed by and shall be a servant of the Provincial Government. He shall draw his pay and allowances from the provincial revenues.

22. *Delegation of power to appoint Administrative Officer to certain authorized municipalities*.—(1) Notwithstanding the provisions of section 21, the Provincial Government may by notification in the Official Gazette delegate the power to appoint an Administrative Officer to an authorized municipality which is a municipality constituted under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925, and the annual expenditure of which on primary education is not less than Rs. 1,00,000 for three

financial years immediately preceding the date of the notification. The Administrative Officer so appointed shall be the servant of the authorized municipality and shall draw his pay, allowance, provident fund, gratuity and pension from its primary education fund.

This is a good compromise. We, therefore, recommend that the administrative officers should be servants of the State Governments ; but provision should also be made to delegate this authority to local bodies in certain cases. We would, however, suggest three changes in the Bombay practice : (1) The delegation should not be based on total expenditure alone, but on expenditure contributed by the local body as well as on efficiency, the latter being regarded as the more important consideration ; (2) the scope of the delegation should not be restricted to municipalities but should be extended to include all local bodies in charge of education ; and (3) it should be necessarily delegated in the case of the corporations and all municipalities which contribute more than 50 per cent of the total expenditure on primary education.

Lastly, we recommend that detailed rules should be framed, prescribing the powers and duties of administrative officers in order to enable the machinery to work smoothly. A good model in this respect is provided by the Bombay Primary Education Rules, 1949.¹² Briefly, it may be stated that the Administrative Officer should be treated as the Chief Executive Officer of the School Board. All matters going up to the Board for decision should go with a recommendation from him ; all resolutions and orders of the Board should be executed by and through him ; he should have full control over all the teaching and non-teaching staff working under him ; he should be responsible for all financial matters such as preparation of budget, maintenance of proper accounts, disbursement of all payments, etc. ; and generally, he should be responsible for the proper conduct of the administration as a whole and for the enforcement of compulsory primary education.

4. *Division of Authority between State Governments and Local Bodies in respect of the Administration of Primary Education* :—We shall now turn to the consideration of the most controversial and difficult part of our terms of reference, viz., the division of authority over primary education between State Governments and local bodies. This can be done conveniently by considering the problem in two ways : firstly, according to the different items included within the scope of administration and secondly, according to the local bodies to be associated with the administration of primary education.

Division of Authority from the functional point of view.

(a) *Inspection* :—The existing position in this respect is as follows :

1. *Ajmer* :—Inspection is done by the Central Government.
2. *Bihar* :—The State is responsible for the inspection of primary schools through its inspecting staff. But a tradition has grown up under which local bodies exercise some control over Government

¹²Vide Appendix B(3) for details.
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inspecting officers. The Education Committee appointed in 1921 considered this matter and recommended that local bodies should be consulted in the question of transfer of sub-inspectors of schools to their control. The Government held the view that the "boards may legitimately desire that their control over those who, after all, are the officers on whom they rely for the management of their schools, should be increased." The Government, therefore, framed a set of rules under Bihar and Orissa Education Resolution No. 866-E, dated the 18th February 1926, giving certain powers to the Chairman of local bodies relating to appointment, transfer, leave, and promotion of Sub-Inspectors of Schools. Under these a Chairman of the District Board, for reasons to be recorded in writing, may suspend any Sub-Inspector of Schools. Further proceedings are then to be drawn up by the District Inspector of Schools who has to submit the case to the Inspector of Schools of the Division for orders through the Chairman. Diaries of Sub-Inspectors of Schools are also to be sent to the Chairman of the District Board and where a Sub-Inspector is serving under a local board, his diaries are to be submitted to the District Inspector through the Chairman of the Local Board. This system of dual control of the inspecting staff often leads to friction between local bodies and departmental officers.

3. *Bombay* :—Inspection is done by the State through its own officers. In Bombay City, the primary schools are open to inspection by Government officers ; but in fact, the inspection is done by the officers of the local body itself.

4. *Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Madras* :—Inspection is done by the State.

5. *Madhya Pradesh* :—Inspection is a function of the State and is carried out through the departmental officers. The Assistant District Inspector of Schools is also controlled by the Chief Executive Officer of the *Janapada Sabhas*.

6. *Punjab* :—Inspection is done by the State ; but as in Bihar, the inspecting officers are liable to some control by the local bodies as well.

7. *Uttar Pradesh* :—In municipal areas, the Superintendent of Education works under the direct control of Municipal Boards and inspects schools. But all schools maintained or aided by the Municipal Board are open to inspection by the District Inspector of Schools or other officer specially empowered by the Education Department. The staff of the State, on inspection, sends a brief note to the Chairman, Municipal Board, and invites his attention on any matter which requires the attention of the Board. In district boards, the district inspecting staff is responsible for inspection of primary schools.

8. *West Bengal* :—Inspection is done by the State Government.

It will be seen that everywhere, inspection is regarded as a duty of the State and is also carried out (except in the City of Bombay and the municipal boards of U.P.) by officers of the State. This is as it should be. and we recommend that inspection should be regarded as a duty of the Government and should be carried out by government officers.

We are also not in favour of the system of dual control of staff which is in vogue in Bihar and Punjab. This leads to considerable friction in practice and has no compensating advantages. *We, therefore, recommend that all inspecting officers should be directly under the government and that the local bodies should have no control over them.*

(b) *Training of Teachers* :—Another important function which should be an exclusive responsibility of State Governments is the training of teachers. It should, of course, be open to any local body to conduct a training institution for primary teachers ; and if it does so, it should be entitled to a grant-in-aid like any other extra-departmental agency. But such cases will be very few and should be regarded as exceptions. *We, therefore, recommend that the State Governments should be responsible for maintaining or aiding the requisite number of training institutions for primary teachers.*

(c) *Syllabuses* :—The third responsibility of State Governments is to prescribe syllabuses or courses of study at the primary level. One exception is often permitted, viz., the local bodies are allowed to introduce changes or alternative courses to suit local conditions with the previous sanction of the government or any officer authorised by the government in this behalf. This freedom to introduce local variations is extremely important and has to be utilised far more largely than at present. *We, therefore, recommend that the authority to define curricula or courses of study at the primary level should continue to vest in the State Governments. But the local bodies should also be authorised, with the previous approval of the Director of Education, to introduce such variations in the prescribed curricula as they may deem necessary in view of local conditions.*

(d) *Finance* :—The fourth and probably the most important responsibility of State Governments is to assist local bodies with suitable grants-in-aid so as to enable them to realise the goal of universal education. The problems connected with such grants-in-aid are, however, so intricate that they have been discussed in detail separately in Section 5 below.

(e) *Administration* :—With the exception of the four duties mentioned above which should be the responsibility of State Governments, all the other work connected with the administration of primary education should be transferred to local bodies and the State Governments should exercise only a general supervisory control. The nature and extent of such control would naturally vary from one branch of administration to another and it is necessary to examine the problem in some detail.

(i) *Teaching Staff*

(1) *Recruitment and Control of Teaching Staff* :—The existing position with regard to the selection and control of teaching staff is as follows :

(i) *Ajmer* :—The power to appoint teachers vests in the municipality. The approval of the Directorate of Education, Government of Ajmer, is generally necessary and it also acts as an appellate authority.

(ii) *Bihar* :—Full powers to employ and control the teaching staff vest in the district boards and municipalities. Grave charges of mal-administration are often made in this respect.

(iii) *Bombay* :—Under the Act of 1923, full powers over the teaching staff were transferred to local bodies. This led to several abuses. Under the Amending Act of 1938, therefore, all powers over the teaching staff were vested in the Administrative Officer who was a servant of the State Government and, in certain cases, an appeal was provided to the Department. Under the Act of 1947, the position has been altered and the local bodies have again been associated with the recruitment and control of teaching staff. A *Staff Selection Committee* to recruit teaching as well as administrative staff has been constituted and an Appellate Tribunal formed to hear appeals against the orders of the Administrative Officer who exercises all powers of control in the first instance. The provisions regarding these are given below :

“ 23. *Staff Selection Committee* :—(1) There shall be a staff selection committee for every District School Board or authorised municipality.

(2) The staff selection committee shall consist of the Educational Inspector of the division or any other officer designated by the Director, the Chairman of the school board and the Administrative Officer.

(3) The Administrative Officer shall act as secretary of the staff selection committee.

(4) The committee shall select candidates for appointments as assistant administrative officers, supervisors, attendance officers and teachers ; and in the case of district school boards, also members of the other staff excluding inferior servants. The committee shall also select teachers to be deputed for training. The selection of candidates and teachers shall be made in accordance with the instructions issued by the Provincial Government.

(5) The school board or the authorised municipality or the administrative officers, as the case may be, shall make appointments of the candidates so selected in accordance with the directions given by the staff selection committee.

“ 24. *Powers of Administrative Officers over the School Board Staff* :—

(1) The Administrative Officer shall have power, subject to such general instructions as may be issued from time to time by the Director, to promote, transfer and take all disciplinary action (including removal or dismissal) against the staff maintained under section 20.

(2) Any person aggrieved by an order of dismissal, removal, reduction, or any other order involving disciplinary action made under sub-section (1), may submit an appeal to a tribunal consisting of the chairman of the school board and the Educational Inspector of the division. The tribunal shall follow the prescribed procedure for the disposal of its business. In the event of a difference of opinion between the members of the tribunal the appeal shall be referred to the Director whose decision shall be final :

Provided that a primary school teacher who is a guaranteed teacher on the date of the coming into force of this Act, may make a further appeal to the Provincial Government against any order of removal or dismissal.

Explanation :—A guaranteed teacher means a primary school teacher who was holding a permanent appointment as a teacher on 30th June, 1923.

(3) An appeal under sub-section (2) shall be made within 30 days from the date of the order appealed against."

(iv) *Coorg* :—Teaching staff is appointed by local bodies on the recommendation of the District Educational Officer.

(v) *Delhi* :—In the Delhi Municipal Committee, teaching staff is recruited by the Municipality on the recommendation of the Superintendent of Municipal Education. In the New Delhi Municipal Committee, the teaching staff is recruited on the recommendation of the Director of Education who is an ex-officio member. In the other local bodies, the Director of Education is the final recruiting authority.

(vi) *Himachal Pradesh* :—The Municipality of Nahan exercises full powers over the teaching staff. The District Board, however, disposes of all questions relating to the appointment, promotion, leave, dismissal, transfer, etc. of teachers, in consultation with the District Inspector of Schools.

(vii) *Madhya Pradesh* :—The *Janapada Sabhas* are deliberative bodies and hence have hardly anything to do with the recruiting of teaching or other staff. Recruitment to posts carrying a salary of Rs. 50 or more needs the approval of the Public Service Commission, and posts of a salary less than Rs. 50/- are filled by the Chief Executive Officer in accordance with the rules which prescribe the minimum qualifications and the procedure for recruitment. But there is a complaint that these rules are not strictly followed. Moreover, they do not lay down that the departmental authorities should be consulted so that the Department can only bring to the notice of the government serious and persistent departures from the rules.

(viii) *Madras* :—Recruitment and control of teaching staff rests in the executive officer of the local body concerned, viz., Educational Officer in the Corporation of Madras, presidents of district boards and executive officers of village *panchayats* in rural areas under the commissioners in municipalities. Qualifications for employment are fixed by the Department; and when persons with minimum qualifications are not available, exemptions can be granted with the approval of departmental officers. Appeals against punishment imposed by the executive authority of a local body can be made to a departmental appellate authority. Detailed rules have been issued by the State Government for the guidance of local bodies in matters of appointment, punishment, transfer, etc. of the teaching staff. Transfers are made, except in the municipal areas, in consultation with departmental officers. Several complaints against the system are heard, especially in the district board areas where the whole authority is vested in a non-official president who is not always interested in education,

(ix) *Punjab* :—The powers in this respect vest statutorily in the local bodies. They have, however, delegated these powers in several cases to the inspecting staff and the executive officers. The nature and scope of the delegations vary from district to district according to local circumstances ; but the final authority in these cases is the local bodies concerned. An appeal against the orders of the local bodies in these matters lies with the Deputy Commissioner and the Commissioner of the Division, and the Education Department in its supervisory capacity has to see that the schools are adequately staffed by trained hands and that the teachers are being well paid.

(x) *Uttar Pradesh* :—Full powers in the appointment and control over teaching staff vest in the local bodies under the old Act. In 1947, the District Board Act was amended and powers of appointment and control of all teachers carrying a salary of Rs. 40/- or less per month were vested in the Deputy Inspector of Schools. But under the amendment of 1951, these powers are proposed to be vested in the boards or in their executive officers, viz., the superintendents of education.

(xi) *West Bengal* :—Municipalities appoint and control qualified teachers in accordance with the provisions of their schemes (approved by the State Government) on the recommendations of the inspecting officers of the Education Department. In rural areas, the teachers of primary schools are appointed by the School Board out of the list of qualified teachers prepared by it on the recommendation of the District Inspector of Schools. No appointment or transfer of teachers is made by the Board except after considering the report of the District Inspector of Schools. No teacher shall be punished, dismissed, discharged, rewarded or promoted by the Board without a previous report from the District Inspector and final appeal lies with the D.P.I. The system is reported to be working satisfactorily.

Needless to say that the whole authority to recruit and control the teaching staff vests in the State Governments in all those States where the local bodies are not associated with the administration of local bodies. This is one extreme. At the other stand states like Bihar where full powers to recruit and control the teaching staff are vested in local bodies. Various intermediate positions between these two ends are seen in states like Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, etc. In our opinion, the best solution of this complicated problem will have to be attempted on lines similar to the procedure adopted in Bombay under the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1947. *We, therefore, recommend that in every major municipality authorised to administer primary schools within its area and in every district school board, the authority to recruit and control the teaching staff should vest in the Staff Selection Committee, the Administrative Officer, and the Appellate Tribunal constituted on lines similar to those adopted in Bombay.* This procedure coordinates the official and non-official sides in an excellent manner and is likely to reduce to a minimum all those evils which are usually complained of in this respect.

(2) *Service Conditions* :—The present position is that the conditions of service for the teaching staff are defined by the controlling local bodies

with the previous approval of the government. The authority to define these conditions is vested in the local bodies because the primary teachers are technically *their* servants ; and the approval of the government is required partly because the State Government has to bear a large part of the expenditure on primary education and partly because a certain basic uniformity is essential in this respect. This is a very convenient arrangement and *we, therefore, recommend that the service conditions of primary teachers should be determined by the local bodies concerned with the sanction of State Governments*, and as far as possible these should be uniform throughout the State.

(3) *Should the Primary Teachers be regarded as Servants of State Governments ?*—An important issue is often raised in this respect : that is to say, the primary teachers demand that they should be taken over as servants of the State Governments. This demand is due to a desire to raise their status in the administrative hierarchy and to escape the disadvantages that often result in being placed under the control of a local body. On a very careful consideration of the problem, however, we feel that it is neither possible nor desirable to do so. To make the primary teachers State servants implies that ninety per cent of the total expenditure on primary education will have to be borne by the States. This may be necessary in rural areas. But in urban areas, local bodies can and should bear a much larger percentage of the expenditure on primary education. The centralisation of the cadre of primary teachers, therefore, will not only increase expenses of the State but will also deprive primary education of the valuable financial assistance of municipal bodies. Moreover, we are not also sure whether the teachers in municipal areas will welcome such a proposal which exposes them to the risk of transfer to rural areas and of a cut in salaries ; and we see no point in taking over the primary teachers in rural areas only in the State service while those in municipal areas continue to be under local bodies. All things considered, *we recommend that primary teachers should continue to be treated as servants of local bodies as at present*. If the two recommendations made by us earlier on this subject are adopted and the control of the cadre of primary teachers is made the joint concern of the education departments and local bodies, the causes for complaints which primary teachers have at present in certain areas will disappear. When that happens, the problem whether primary teachers should be servants of the government or of local bodies will be merely academic and will cease to be controversial.

(ii) *Non-teaching Staff*

If the control of teaching staff presents large controversial issues, that of non-teaching staff is a comparatively simple affair. Everywhere, this staff is regarded as being under the local body and method of controlling it is similar to that adopted in respect of teaching staff. We, however, feel that this is an area where larger powers may be delegated to local bodies. *We, therefore, recommend that the State Governments should not try to regulate (as is done in some States) the number of posts and the scales of pay of the non-teaching staff working in the education section of the local administration*. Here local bodies should be given the freedom to fix the schedule of all non-teaching staff, to decide their emoluments, etc. and the financial difficulties involved in this delegation

should be overcome by the award of fixed block grants on account of the non-teaching staff so appointed. In all other matters, however, the control of the non-teaching staff should vest in the Staff Selection Committee, the Administrative Officer, and the Appellate Tribunal exactly as in the case of the teaching staff.

(iii) Textbooks

(3) *Selection of Textbooks* :—The most usual practice is to vest the authority to approve a textbook in a body of experts in the subject and to leave the choice of the actual books to be used to the local body concerned. The existing position in this respect is as follows :

(i) *Ajmer* :—Textbooks are prescribed by the Directorate of Education, Delhi.

(ii) *Bihar* :—No board or municipality has the power to prescribe textbooks in primary or middle schools. The schools under these local bodies have to select textbooks from the list approved by the Director of Public Instruction.

(iii) *Bombay* :—Prior to 1947, the statutory position was that the Textbook Committees approved books for use as texts and the local authorities selected the actual texts to be used in their schools from among those in the approved lists. After 1947, however, two new practices have been introduced. Firstly, the State has prepared language readers of its own and it is, therefore, obligatory on local bodies to use them unless they are specifically exempted. Secondly, it was found that the usual practice on the part of the textbook committees was to approve every book that came up to certain standards, so that the task of selecting the best book available was still left. Hence the law has been amended and the right to specify textbooks in primary schools has been taken over by the staff. Under this new provision, the State prepares a list of the three best books in each language, for each subject, (other than language reading books) and for each standard, and then permits the school boards to select any one out of the three choices offered under each head.

(iv) *Coorg* :—The Coorg Textbook Committee prescribes textbooks for all primary schools in the State.

(v) *Delhi* :—There is a Textbook Committee under the Chairmanship of the Director of Education. Only books approved by the Textbook Committee have to be adopted by local bodies.

(vi) *Himachal Pradesh* :—The local bodies have to carry out the instructions of the State Education Department in the matter of prescribing textbooks.

(vii) *Madhya Pradesh* :—Textbooks in primary schools are prescribed by the Government and the local bodies have to follow them.

(viii) *Madras* :—Local bodies have only to select books from the list of textbooks approved by the Textbook Committee. Without the approval of the District Educational Officer, the textbooks once selected are not to be changed within a period of two years. In the Corporation of Madras and the District Boards their Standing Committees for Education make the selection from the prescribed list. In the schools managed by a Municipal Council, the Chairman in consultation with the District Educational Officer selects the books.

(ix) *Punjab* :—The local bodies have to follow the textbooks prescribed by the Education Department.

(x) *Uttar Pradesh* :—The Education Department of the State prescribes textbooks and the local bodies have no hand in them.

(xi) *West Bengal* :—The authority to prescribe textbooks vests in the State.

The general problem of preparation, approval, and prescription of textbooks is extremely controversial but is beyond the scope of this enquiry. We are here concerned with only one aspect of the problem, viz., the authority which can be delegated to local bodies in respect of the prescription of textbooks for primary schools. In this respect, we make the following two recommendations :

- (i) the authority to prescribe textbooks for primary schools should vest in the State Governments who should act on the advice of experts—official and non-official—in the subject ; and
- (ii) where more than one book happens to be prescribed in any subject, the educational body concerned should have the freedom to select any one of the books for use in the primary schools under its control.

(iv) *Other Matters*

(1) *School Hours and Vacations* :—These have to be adjusted to local conditions. We, therefore, recommend that the Governments should only fix the minimum number of days in a year on which the primary schools must be working. Subject to this limit, the authority to fix holidays and vacations should vest entirely in the local body.

(2) *Construction and Maintenance of School Buildings* :—As a rule, the final authority in this respect vests and should continue to vest in the local bodies.

There are three interesting experiments in this respect which have been conducted in Bombay and to which we wish to invite special attention. The first is the experiment of establishing *ad hoc District School Building Committees*.¹³ The special features of this experiment are five : (i) On the District School Building Committee are brought together all the important officials and non-officials in the District whose association is likely to help the cause ; (ii) the usual elaborate procedure which is prescribed for making a non-recurring grant-in-aid to a local body for the construction of school buildings is cut short ; (iii) the progress of building works can be expedited very greatly ; (iv) a definite annual grant for the construction of school buildings is made available from State revenues and it evokes local as well as popular contributions in return ; and (v) a separate fund for the construction of school buildings is created so that amounts earmarked for the purpose do not lapse at the end of the financial year. Such an experiment is worthy of a trial elsewhere also.

The second experiment is the proposal to utilize the provident fund balances of primary teachers to construct school buildings.¹⁴ The idea

¹³For details, vide Appendix B(4).

¹⁴For details, vide Appendix B(5).

to finance a programme of constructing primary school buildings by loans is being put forward for a very long time ; but owing to the difficulty of raising loans it has not been possible to give any tangible effect to it. The State of Bombay now proposes to utilize a part of the accumulated provident fund balance of primary teachers for the purpose. This will expedite the provision of school buildings and also secure a better rate of interest to primary teachers. The idea, therefore, deserves imitation by other States.

The work done in the Sholapur district is the third experiment.¹⁵ Here the people of as many as 415 villages constructed school buildings in the short space of a year or so. This is a remarkable example to show how the cooperation of village people can achieve results which are far beyond the slow advance attained through the usual channels.

We, therefore, recommend that the old, slow and cumbrous procedure which a local body is often required to adopt if it desires to construct a school building and obtain a State grant-in-aid therein should be thoroughly revised. The form of this revision will have to vary to suit local conditions ; but its objectives should be, (i) to secure the cooperation of the people to the fullest extent possible ; (ii) to cut down red tape to the minimum ; and (iii) to secure a constant and non-lapsable revenue to finance the building programme.

(3) *Opening, closure, or transfer of schools* :—The actual position in this respect varies from State to State as the following brief notes will show :—

(i) *Ajmer* :—This is done with the prior approval of the Director of Education.

(ii) *Bihar* :—Both district and municipal boards have full authority to open, close, or transfer a school at their discretion.

(iii) *Bombay* :—The municipal school boards can open, close, or transfer schools at their discretion ; but if the proposal involves additional expenditure, the same will not be “ approved ” for purposes of State grants-in-aid unless it is sanctioned by the government. The district school boards have similar powers in theory ; but in practice, they can hardly do anything without obtaining the sanction of higher authorities because their budgets and all reappropriations therein are sanctioned by the Department.

(iv) *Coorg* :—Powers in this regard vest in local bodies and officers of the Department make recommendations.

(v) *Delhi* :—The local bodies have full powers in this respect ; but the approval of the Directorate of Education is generally sought.

(vi) *Himachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh* :—The powers in this respect vest in local bodies.

(vii) *Madras* :—New schools can be opened by a local body only with the prior approval of the District Educational Officer. In areas declared as school-less centres, they can open schools without the specific approval of the departmental officer. But the local body should, all the same,

¹⁵Vide. Appendix B(1).

seek departmental recognition for all schools subsequently. Transfer of management, amalgamation and closure of a school requires the approval of the departmental officer, i.e. the District Educational Officer concerned.

(viii) *Punjab* :—Local bodies have full powers regarding opening of primary schools but the power to recognise them vests in the Education Department. No primary school can be closed without the sanction of the authority which recognised it.

(ix) *Uttar Pradesh* :—Powers in this respect vest in the local bodies.

(x) *West Bengal* :—The municipalities may open new schools at their discretion. If they demand a government grant thereon, prior approval of the government is essential. The district school boards have, as a rule, to consult union boards, union committees, or *panchayats* concerned, as well as the departmental officers before they can open a new school. Even the sanction of the government is generally necessary. The powers of the municipal or district school boards in the matters of closing or transferring schools seem to be larger.

The question regarding the opening of a new school, its closure or transfer to some other place, is local rather than an educational matter and therefore, should better be left to the discretion of the local body concerned. It has, however, been argued that this is a wide power and that some local bodies may abuse it to close schools in some places and open them in others on political or uneducational grounds. While we are alive to this possibility, we believe that it can be checked in two ways : firstly, the pressure of public opinion will ordinarily prevent the misuse of this power ; and secondly, a further check can be provided by encouraging local bodies to carry out educational surveys of their areas, to prepare well-considered plans of educational expansion and to get them approved by the State Governments. *We, therefore, recommend that subject generally to the provisions of such approved plans, the authority to open, close, or transfer schools should vest in the local bodies.* The approval of the government should ordinarily be demanded when the proposals involve additional expenditure on which a state grant-in-aid is to be claimed.

(4) *Enforcement of Compulsion* :—This has generally been an exclusive responsibility of local bodies and should continue to be so. The main practical difficulty in this respect is the elaborate procedure prescribed to bring a defaulting parent to book. *We, therefore, recommend that the legal provisions regarding the enforcement of compulsory education should be amended with a view to simplifying the prosecution of defaulting parents.*¹⁶

DIVISION OF AUTHORITY ON THE BASIS OF THE LOCAL BODY ASSOCIATED

So far, we considered the division of authority over primary education from the functional point of view and discussed how best the

¹⁶For details, vide Appendix B(6).

authority over each item in the administration of primary education could be divided between the State Governments and local bodies. We shall now see how this division will broadly vary from one type of local authority to another.

(1) *Corporations*:—These organisations are rich and can contribute a large part of the total expenditure on primary education. Very often, they are old venerable bodies and the efficiency of their administration is very high. *The general policy should, therefore, be to devolve as large an authority to city corporations as possible.* The government should retain to itself the authority to inspect primary schools, to train primary teachers, to prescribe curricula, and to exercise a board general control over the administration as a whole. Subject to these limitations, all authority over primary education should be vested in the corporations. Their educational bodies may be designated as “Education Committees” to distinguish them from the School Board and their chief executive officers in education may be designated as “Education Officers”.

Larger municipalities which contribute more than 50 per cent of the total expenditure on education may preferably be dealt with on lines analogous to those of the corporations.

(2) *Authorised Municipalities*:—As stated earlier, every municipality should be associated with the administration of primary education but not every municipality can be made a local authority. Only the bigger municipalities may be authorised to administer primary education in their areas and may, as in Bombay, be designated as “Authorised Municipalities”. The population of the area, the total revenue of the municipality and its capacity to contribute to the expenditure on primary education should be the basis of selection and as a rule, only municipalities that can contribute about 50 per cent of the expenditure on primary education may be included in the group.

Their educational bodies may be designated as “School Boards” and their chief executive officers may be called “Administrative Officers”.

This group will differ from the corporations in three ways. Firstly, the government will actually conduct inspections instead of merely reserving the right to do so. Secondly, the general control of the Government will be a little more detailed, and thirdly, the administrative officers should preferably remain the servants of the State Governments. The control over the teaching staff may be divided on the Bombay model described earlier, and even with regard to the other aspects of administration, provisions may be made on the lines of sections 17 and 18 of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, which are quoted below for ready reference :

“17. *Duties and functions of Authorised Municipalities*:—(1) Subject to the provisions of this Act and the rules made thereunder, an authorised municipality shall perform the following duties and functions :

- (a) to make adequate provision for maintaining the existing primary schools and opening new schools wherever necessary, and for granting aid to approved schools, other than primary schools, maintained by the Provincial Government or by a school board or by an authorised municipality ;

- (b) to provide adequate accommodation and equipment for primary schools ;
 - (c) to maintain an adequate staff of Assistant Administrative Officers, Supervisors, Attendance Officers, clerks, teachers, inferior servants and other staff as may in the opinion of the Provincial Government be necessary ;
 - (d) to make adequate provision for facilities for the free primary education of all children to whom a scheme of compulsion applies ;
 - (e) to sanction, with or without variation, the budget of the municipal school board ; and
 - (f) to perform such other duties and functions as may be prescribed.
- (2) The authorised municipality may, subject to the provisions of this Act and the rules made thereunder, also make provision for the welfare of children attending primary schools within its area.
- (3) The authorised municipality shall, subject to the sanction of the Provincial Government, make regulations—
- (i) determining the qualifications, pay and terms of employment of Assistant Administrative Officers, Supervisors, Attendance Officers, clerks, inferior servants and other staff ;
 - (ii) regulating the administration, management and control of primary schools ;
 - (iii) determining the qualifications, pay and terms of employment of the Administrative Officer appointed by it under section 22 ; and
 - (iv) for the supply of books, slates, education requisites, milk and meals or cloths to children receiving primary education if provision of such supply is made."

" 18. Powers, Duties and Functions of Municipal School Boards :

- (1) Subject to the provisions of this Act and the rules made thereunder, the municipal school board shall be responsible for the management and control of all primary schools which vest in the authorised municipality excepting such as are maintained by the Provincial Government ; and the board shall exercise such powers and perform such duties and functions of the authorised municipality in respect of primary education as may be prescribed.
- (2) Subject to the provisions of this Act and the rules made thereunder, a municipal school board shall perform the following duties and functions :
 - (a) to prepare schemes to be submitted by the authorised municipality to the Provincial Government for expansion of primary education and to carry out the provisions of such schemes ;

- (b) to disburse money from the primary education fund in accordance with the budget sanctioned by the authorised municipality ;
 - (c) to perform the duties and functions specified in clauses (f) to (j) and (l) and (n) of sub-section (2) of section 13 ; and
 - (d) to perform such other duties and functions as may be prescribed.
- (3) The municipal school board shall, with the sanction of the Director, make regulations laying down the days, the time and the periods on each day during which a child shall be present for instruction at an approved school.
- (iii) *Non-authorised Municipalities* :—The smaller municipalities which cannot be permitted to administer primary education in their areas will have to be treated at a still lower level. Their powers and duties over primary education may be broadly defined on the following lines :
- (i) They should have the right to elect one or more representatives on the District or Municipal School Board which controls the primary schools in their areas.
 - (ii) They should have the right to supervise primary schools in their areas ; and for that purpose, to elect a “Town School Committee” of five to nine persons.
 - (iii) The authority of the Town School Committee over the teaching staff (which would be a part of a central cadre controlled by the District or Municipal School Board) should be limited to two main powers : (a) to grant casual leave to the heads of local schools ; and (b) to be consulted before transferring local teachers. (As a rule, a recommendation of the School Committee for the transfer of a teacher should be regarded as a mandate when it is supported by a majority of two-thirds of the total number of members of the Committee).
 - (iv) The Town School Committees should have definite financial powers. Annually, a definite amount should be placed at their disposal which, along with such additions as they can locally make, should be available to them for all expenditure on local primary schools (except the salaries and allowances of teachers which would be paid actually).
 - (v) The powers and duties of the Town School Committees should include, among other things, the following :
 - (a) the construction of school buildings ;
 - (b) responsibility for securing proper accommodation for all local primary schools, including the maintenance of owned buildings and the hire of others ;
 - (c) maintenance of school gardens, children’s parks and playgrounds ;
 - (d) provision of all equipment required by local schools ;
 - (e) responsibility for organising all extra-curricular activities ;

- (f) authority to distribute free slates, books, etc. to indigent children and to decide free studentships in cases where fees are charged ;
- (g) responsibility for enforcement of compulsory education including authority to pass attendance orders, to grant exemptions for reasonable excuses, and to launch prosecutions ;
- (h) subject to rules made by the School Board, to lend the use of school buildings for other than educational purposes ;
- (i) to award prizes to school students ;
- (j) to decide local holidays subject to the limits laid down by the School Board ;
- (k) to make recommendations to the School Board regarding adjustment of school hours and vacations ;
- (l) to carry out all such duties and exercise all such powers as may from time to time be delegated to it by the School Board ;
- (m) to maintain the local school chest and to expend its proceeds in accordance with the rules ; and
- (n) generally, to take all such measures as will help in expanding and improving primary education within the area in its charge.

(iv) *Villages* :—Here a “ Village School Committee ” should be formed for each village or a group of villages. Where a village *panchayat* exists, it should elect the village school committee of three to seven persons which should be in charge of all the schools in the area of the *panchayat*. When no *panchayat* exists, an *ad hoc* Village School Committee should be nominated by the District School Board for each village or convenient group of villages.

The powers and duties of village school committees should be divided into two groups ; the first group will include all those powers which a Village School Committee will have as soon as it is formed, and the second group will include all those powers which can be conferred on it by the District School Board in view of its efficiency. An indication of the nature of these two groups is given below :

Group One : Obligatory Powers and Duties

- (a) Responsibility for securing proper accommodation for all local primary schools, including the maintenance of owned buildings and the hire of others ;
- (b) to sanction casual leave to the head of the school ;
- (c) maintenance of school gardens and playgrounds ;
- (d) provision of equipment for local schools ;
- (e) help towards organisation of extra-curricular activities ;
- (f) distribution of free slates, books, etc. to indigent children and awarding free studentships where fees are charged ;
- (g) awarding prizes to school students ;

(h) deciding local holidays subject to the limit laid down by the School Board ;

(i) to maintain the school chest and to expend its proceeds in accordance with the rules ;

(j) to make recommendations to the School Board regarding local school hours and vacations ; and

(k) generally, to take all such measures as will help in expanding and improving primary education within its area.

Group Two : Additional Powers and Duties.

(a) construction of school buildings ;

(b) maintenance of children's parks ;

(c) responsibility for the enforcement of compulsory education including authority to pass attendance orders, to grant exemptions for reasonable excuses, and to launch prosecutions ;

(d) subject to rules made by the School Board, to lend the use of school buildings for other than educational purposes ;

(e) the right to be consulted before transfer of local teachers ;

(f) the right to demand, by a specified majority, the transfer of a local teacher ; and

(g) exercising all such powers and performing all such duties as may be delegated to it by the District School Board.

Care should, however, be taken to see that adequate finances are made available for this purpose.

(v) *District School Boards* :—The powers and duties of these bodies* should be similar to those of the municipal school boards with two main differences ; firstly, the administrative officers of district school boards should necessarily be government servants, and secondly, there would be a greater indirect control by the Government through its financial sanctions that will be more frequently required here than in the case of municipal school boards.

(vi) *Ward Committees in Big Towns and Cities* :—In big towns and cities, the creation of one education committee or school board often savours of centralisation rather than of decentralisation and it is often impossible for this single body to maintain the necessary local contacts. Therefore, in big urban areas also, a two-tier system of local bodies is often created. At the top, there is an Education Committee for the area as a whole ; then the City is divided into a number of small, manageable local units and a ward committee (sometimes called " District or Divisional Committee ") is constituted for each unit. These ward committees function under the general supervision of the Central Education Committee and their powers and duties are specifically defined. Such a step has been recently taken in England under the Education Act of 1914 and similar practices are found in several other countries as well.¹⁷

¹⁷A recent and comprehensive study of the problem has been made by Shri R. V. Parulekar in his Report on the Administration of Primary Education in the City of Bombay (Vide Appendix B(7) for details).

We, therefore, recommend that in big towns and cities a two-tier system of administration be preferably adopted and ward committees with specific powers and duties be created.

We are conscious of the fact that the proposals which we have outlined in this section for dividing the authority over primary education between the State Governments and local bodies are liable to criticism from certain points of view. For example, the idea of separating inspection from administration is likely to be opposed on the ground that it leads to overlapping and increase in costs. Similarly, some of our proposals involve dual control whose disadvantages are too well-known to need specific mention here. But in spite of such shortcomings, we have made these proposals because, in our opinion, there is no better alternative. Simpler solutions based on unified control are possible no doubt. For instance, it may be argued that the administration of primary education should be fully centralised under the state governments or entirely transferred to the local bodies. But we do strongly feel that these over-simplifications of the problem can only lead to disaster. Similarly, we feel that a certain complexity in the pattern of administration is inevitable. We have to deal with several types of local bodies which vary immensely in resources, liabilities, standard of efficiency, capacity of permanent staff and quality of non-official leadership, available. The progress of primary education already achieved as well as the difficulties to be surmounted to reach the goal of universal education also differ from area to area. Under these circumstances, it is futile to expect any single solution that will meet with success in all situations; and the only course open is to adjust the devolution of authority to the capacity and efficiency of the local body concerned. This may result in complexity; but it would certainly be wrong to regard simplicity of administration as a more important goal than the progress of primary education itself. All things considered, therefore, we do feel that our proposals represent probably the best practical solution of our difficulties in the existing circumstances.

Before concluding this discussion, we would, however, make three recommendations of a general character. To begin with, we would like to emphasise that the proposals of devolving authority in primary education are relative and depend upon the representative character of the local body concerned, its resources, its traditions of public service, and its official and non-official personnel. When the resources of a local body are increased and its composition is made more democratic, it is a common experience that it becomes a more powerful weapon of public service and thereby attracts a better type of citizens either to seek service under it or to work upon it as elected representatives of the people. This leads to an increase in efficiency which, in its turn, justifies a further delegation of authority in matters like the control of primary education. It is, therefore, quite possible to suggest that a much larger delegation of authority than what we have recommended above can be conveniently made if our local bodies are properly reconstituted and given larger resources. We accept this argument as valid and invite attention to an interesting experiment recently tried in Uttar Pradesh whereby the District Boards were reconstituted and given larger powers of control over primary education. It is beyond the scope of this enquiry to

suggest the manner in which our existing local bodies should be reconstituted and made richer. We would, however, welcome all experiments undertaken from this point of view and shall have no objection to these proposals being modified in the light of the reconstitution of the local bodies themselves.

Our second recommendation is a corollary to the first. We believe that administrative reform should emphasise decentralisation and should tend to build up local leadership and strengthen local bodies. This movement will also be greatly facilitated by the spread of education among the people, by the introduction of compulsory primary education, and by campaigns of social education. As time passes, therefore, the social conditions will become more and more favourable to the successful working of local bodies—an event which will make possible a greater devolution of authority over primary education as well. We, therefore, feel that no plan of dividing the authority over primary education between State Governments and local bodies be taken as final and absolute. *On the other hand, there should be thorough decennial reviews of the problem on an all-India basis and the question of devolving greater authority over primary education to local bodies should be thoroughly revised in the light of their increased efficiency.*

Our third recommendation is that the law should empower the government to withdraw any one or more powers which are conferred on local bodies in the administration of primary education. Under the existing law, a local body obtains a certain set of powers in a lump : and if it fails to perform any of its duties properly, the only corrective measure left open to the government is to supersede it altogether. We strongly feel that a *via media* between full delegation on the one hand and complete supersession on the other would be a desideration from the administrative point of view. *We, therefore, recommend that it should be open to the government to withdraw any powers conferred on a local body if it is found that such power is not being properly exercised.* Similarly, the Government should also have the authority to delegate any of its own powers to a local body if such delegation is justified by the efficiency of the local administration.

5. *Finance for Primary Education* :—The next important aspect of the problem is finance. Here several issues arise for discussion, viz.

- (a) the responsibility of the Federal Government for financing primary education ;
- (b) the responsibility of the State Governments for financing primary education and the principles on which its grants-in-aid to local bodies should be regulated ;
- (c) the responsibility of local bodies for financing primary education and, in particular, the desirability or otherwise of levying an educational cess ; and
- (d) procedures for budgetting, accounts and audit.

We shall now proceed to discuss these seriatim.

(a) *Federal Responsibility for Financing Primary Education :—*

The principle of federal responsibility for primary education is supported by several weighty considerations. To begin with, federal aid for primary education is claimed on the ground of financial equity. Usually, the Federal Government is assigned the best and the largest financial resources of the country and collects its revenues in all parts of the country. This is particularly true of India. It is, therefore, urged that the local areas and the States have a right to demand that some of the funds raised by the Federal Government in their areas should be floated back through a system of grant-in-aid in order to enable them to undertake developmental programmes like universal compulsory education. Secondly, federal support is also claimed on the ground that compulsory education which creates an enlightened electorate is not only of local or State importance but has a tremendous national significance as well in a "sovereign democratic republic". Thirdly, federal aid is claimed on the most important ground of equalisation of educational opportunity. When education was a responsibility of the family, the education of poor children suffered greatly. When primary education was made a local responsibility and municipalities established free, tax-supported schools and compelled attendance equality of educational opportunity was provided at the family level. But it was soon discovered that even local communities, like families, showed inequalities of a great order. The urban areas had fewer children and larger resources while the rural areas had more children and fewer resources so that "the income per child to be educated" varied largely from one local community to another and led to inequalities of educational provision. The State, therefore, had to step in and by instituting a suitable system of grant-in-aid equalise educational opportunity at the local level. But now it is discovered that, like the communities, the States themselves are unequal not only in educational achievement but in the capacity to support a programme of compulsory education as well. It is, therefore, urged that unless the Federal Government steps in, accepts financial responsibility for compulsory education, and institutes a proper system of grants-in-aid, equality of educational opportunity cannot be provided at the State level. Lastly, it is pointed out that the Constitution of India definitely supports federal aid for education. Article 45 provides that the "State" shall endeavour to provide universal compulsory education and the word "State" is explicitly defined to include the Federal Government, the State Governments, and the local bodies. The Federal Government is thus clearly made responsible for universal and compulsory education and obviously, the one effective way in which it can discharge this responsibility is to provide federal aid for primary education.

Historically, central responsibility for financing primary education in India was a *fait accompli* till 1921. In 1833, a system of financial centralisation was introduced and all revenues were vested in the "Imperial" Government so that primary education, like any other branch of public administration, began to be financed from Imperial revenues. Even after the financial decentralisation introduced by Lord Mayo in 1870, the Central Government continued to recognise a special responsibility for financing educational development in general and mass education in particular. Between 1902 and 1919 the Government of India sanctioned large recurring and non-recurring grants for primary education.²⁰ But under the Government of India Act, 1919, not only did the central grants cease to exist, but the Centre was forced to levy contributions from the States to balance its budget. These contributions were discontinued in 1927-28 but central grants could not be restarted until after the economic depression of 1929-37 was over. Under the Government of India Act, 1935, the Centre was expected, in theory at least, to assist the provinces in development programme. But the occasion to do so arose for the first time in 1947 when the Post-War Development Programme (1947-52) was undertaken. The Central Government now began to give a general grant-in-aid to provincial programmes of development. These included some schemes for the expansion and improvement of primary education and hence the Centre has indirectly assisted primary education. The fact, however, remains that no specific grants for compulsory primary education was sanctioned. Even the Adult Education Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education, 1939, admitted the prior claim of primary education to receive central subsidies; but although specific central grants for social education were sanctioned in 1949-50, the principle of separate grants for compulsory primary education has not been specifically accepted so far and even the Five-Year Plan makes no reference to it. The position is far from satisfactory and if an earnest endeavour is to be made to carry out the mandate contained in Article 45 of the Constitution, we feel that the Federal Government should take a keener interest than it does at present, should press the State Governments to exert more strenuously, and should come forward with earmarked grants for universal and compulsory primary education.

A word is necessary about the principles on which such federal grants are to be given. The Committee on the Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development (1950) suggested that 30 per cent of the total cost of compulsory primary education should be borne by the Federal Government. This basis of a flat "proportional grant" is not likely to serve the purpose. The defects of such a basis are well-known. It gives more to him that hath and not to him who needs; it does not take into consideration the level of educational development already reached in the different States and is more likely to accentuate existing inequalities than to enable the several parts of the country to march with a more

²⁰Nurullah and Naik :—History of Education in India during the British Period, p. 437.

equal step and finally, it ignores the great differences of wealth seen in the States and fails to appreciate the fact that the States have to make a very unequal effort²¹ to earn the same amount of grant from the Centre. So long as the amounts of the grants-in-aid are small and inappreciable with reference to the total magnitude of the problem, the proportional grant does no harm. But it ceases to be serviceable as soon as one comes to grips with the problem. It is, therefore, highly necessary to adopt "equalisation" as the basic principle of federal grants for compulsory education. A careful investigation has to be carried out to ascertain (a) the educational level already attained in different States, (b) the probable cost required to introduce a specified minimum programme of universal compulsory education, (c) the ability of each State to contribute to the cost of such a programme and the amount which it may reasonably be expected to grant for the purpose, and (f) the amount of federal aid necessary to achieve a specified equality of educational opportunity in all the States.²² This is a matter of very great importance and it would help the cause of education materially if a special committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education were to investigate into it and make its findings available to the educationists and administrators in general and to the Finance Commission in particular.

To sum up : *We recommend that the Union Government should assign specific grants for universal and compulsory primary education in the States ; and that such grants should be based on the principle of equalisation ; and that a preliminary investigation to ascertain the nature and extent of such grants should be undertaken without delay.*

- (b) *Responsibility of State Governments for Financing Primary Education*:—Since the Federal Government has taken no effective steps to fulfil its responsibilities in this respect and as the local bodies are unable to make a large contribution to the support of primary education, the main responsibility for financing primary education falls upon the State Governments at present. It also appears that this position will remain substantially unchanged for some years to come.

What is the measure to show whether a State Government is doing its duty in this respect ? The Committee on Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development (1950) whose report was referred to earlier, has suggested that every State Government should spend 20 per cent of its revenue on education ; but it has not suggested the standard proportion of the expenditure on primary education to the total expenditure on education. In both these matters, the different States show wide variations.

²¹This is defined as the ratio of total expenditure on primary education to total revenue of the State.

²²A small pilot investigation in the matter has been made by Shrimati Madhuri Shah, *vide* Appendix B(10).

Consider, for example, the following statistics for the budget estimates of 1951-52;

STATES' EDUCATION BUDGETS* (REVENUE ACCOUNT)

State	Popula- tion 1951 Census	Total State Expendi- ture	Total Expendi- ture on Educa- tion	Total Expendi- ture on Primary Schools	Expendi- ture per 1000 people	Percent- age of the Edu- cation Budget to the total State Budget	Percent- age of the Edu- cation Budget for Primary Edu- cation
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	(Rupees in lakhs)		(Rupees in thousands)		Rs.		
Part 'A'							
Assam ..	91.29	10.60	1,69,75	76,09	1,860	16.0	44.8
Bihar ..	402.19	31.13	3,28,75	1,23,12	817	10.6	37.4
Bombay ..	359.44	60.60	11,97,68	7,97,01	3,332	19.8	66.5
Madhya Pradesh ..	213.28	20.45	8,19,84	1,34,39	1,500	15.6	42.0
Madras ..	569.52	64.92	11,39,42	7,08,70	2,001	17.6	62.2
Orissa ..	146.44	11.51	1,36,35	58,28	931	11.8	42.8
Punjab ..	126.39	16.84	1,93,25	97,19	1,529	11.5	50.3
Uttar Pradesh ..	632.54	61.51	7,37,19	3,54,07	1,165	12.0	48.0
W. Bengal ..	247.87	38.81	3,47,25	1,27,57	1,401	8.9	36.7
Total A ..	2788.96	3,16.37	45,69,48	24,54,94	1,638	14.4	54.0
Part 'B'							
Hyderabad ..	186.53	32.42	4,83,12	2,08,07	2,590	14.9	43.1
Jammu & Kashmir ..	43.70	3.92	42,78	17,39	979	9.2	40.6
Madhya Bharat ..	79.41	11.36	1,47,17	53,44	1,853	13.0	36.3
Mysore ..	90.72	14.18	3,08,96	1,31,09	3,408	21.8	42.4
Pepsu ..	34.69	4.91	67,31	13,90	1,940	13.7	20.7
Rajasthan ..	152.98	15.62	2,59,30	1,40,23	1,695	16.6	54.1
Saurashtra ..	41.36	8.05	1,12,67	64,28	2,724	14.0	57.0
Travancore-Cochin ..	92.65	17.21	2,88,26	1,11,12	3,111	16.7	38.6
Total B ..	722.04	1,07.67	17,09,57	7,39,52	2,368	15.8	43.3
Part 'C' & 'D'							
Ajmer ..	6.93	1.12	29,08	10,66	4,196	26.0	36.7
A & N Islands ..	0.31	1.31	1,69	52	5,452	1.3	30.8
Bhopal ..	8.38	1.51	16,39	5,24	1,956	10.9	32.0
Bilaspur ..	1.27	14	2,02	25	1,591	14.4	12.4
Coorg ..	2.29	74	7,11	1,32	3,105	9.6	18.6
Delhi ..	17.44	3.93	68,38	9,70	3,921	17.4	14.2
Himachal Pradesh ..	9.89	1.88	19,32	10,51	1,954	10.3	54.4
Kutch ..	5.68	97	7,73	4,28	1,361	8.0	55.4
Manipur ..	5.79	44	6,47	4,02	1,117	14.7	62.1
Tripura ..	6.50	95	11,76	4,28	1,809	12.4	36.4
Vindhya Pradesh ..	35.78	2.57	45,88	18,05	1,282	17.9	39.4
Total C & D ..	100.26	15.56	2,15.83	68.83	2,153	13.9	31.9
GRAND TOTAL	3611.26	4,39.60	65,01.39	32,63.29	1,800	14.8	50.2

* Education department only. Income from fees and other sources excluded.

† Figures relate to 1950-51.

It will be seen from the above table that different States contribute very unequally to the support of primary education. Bombay has the best record (65.5 p.c.) and Bilaspur has the lowest (12.4 p.c.). Part A States, on the whole, do best. They spend about 14.4 per cent of their revenue on education as a whole and allocate about 54.4 per cent of their educational expenditure to the primary stage. Part B States spend more on education (15.8 per cent) as a whole ; but they assign only 43.3 per cent of the expenditure to primary education. Part C States fall much below the mark. Their expenditure on education is only 13.9 per cent of their revenues and they give only 31.9 per cent of it to primary education.

In view of the fact that primary education has a supreme claim on State revenues set aside for education, *we recommend that a sum not less than sixty per cent of the total educational expenditure of the State should be spent on primary education.* If such a standard is adopted in addition to the recommendation already made (*i.e.* a State should spend about 20 per cent of its revenue on education as a whole), the total resources available for primary education will be substantially increased.

DIRECT EXPENDITURE BY STATE GOVERNMENTS

Of the resources thus available, the State should set aside a part for direct expenditure under its control. Inspection of primary schools and training of primary teachers are two exclusive responsibilities of the State Governments and the costs on these accounts should be charged to these funds. In addition to these, we recommend two new responsibilities for direct State action. The first is research and experiments in problems of primary and rural education. It is hardly necessary to dilate on the importance of this activity. We are now spending crores of rupees on the mere continuance of a traditional system which has revealed several weak spots and led to immense waste and ineffectiveness. It would, therefore, be a very profitable investment to spend a few thousands a year in studying the problems of primary and rural education or in conducting experiments to evolve richer and more fruitful techniques. The States might set up research bureaus for the purpose, organise special experiments, add research activities to every primary teachers' training college which should preferably be located in (or shifted to) rural areas, and assist research activities and experiments undertaken by universities and other agencies. *We, therefore, recommend that a specific budget provision should be made annually for the encouragement of research and experiments in primary and rural education.* Another activity which we recommend is the creation of a Statutory Board of Primary Education. Bengal was the first State to create this organisation under Chapter II of the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930. It consists of the Director of Public Instruction (Chairman), four members elected by district school boards (the municipal school committees had no elected representatives), and seven nominated members, two of whom shall be women and two shall be representatives of backward classes. It had no powers of initiative and could only give its opinion on issues referred to it by the Government. Bombay followed up the idea and created a similar board in 1938. Its constitution and

powers are thus described by the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1947 :

" 58. Constitution of Provincial Board of Primary Education :--

(1) There shall be a Provincial Board of Primary Education, consisting of twelve members, of whom six shall be elected by the school boards in the manner prescribed. The remaining six, of whom not more than three shall be Government officers, shall be appointed by the Provincial Governments.

(2) The members of the said board shall hold office for a period of three years : Provided that the term of office of the outgoing members shall be deemed to extend to and to expire with the date on which their successors are elected or appointed, as the case may be.

(3) Any member of the said board may resign his seat at any time by giving notice thereof in writing to the president ; and such member shall be deemed to have vacated his seat as soon as the president has received his resignation.

(4) Any member of the said board who absents himself from three consecutive meetings of the board without its previous permission shall cease to be a member of the Board.

(5) The Provincial Government may on its own motion or on the recommendation supported by a resolution passed by at least two-thirds of the whole number of members of the said Board remove any member of the said Board if such member has been guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties or any disgraceful conduct or has become incapable of performing his duties as a member by reason of any physical or mental infirmity :

Provided that no such member shall be so removed nor shall any resolution recommending the removal of any member be passed unless the member to whom it relates has been given a reasonable opportunity of showing cause why he should not be so removed or why such recommendation should not be made.

(6) The elected members of the said Board shall be persons having any of the following qualifications :

(a) a graduate of seven years' standing of any recognised university ;

(b) a professor who has served as such for a period of five years in a college affiliated to a statutory university in the province of Bombay ; and

(c) a headmaster who has served as such for ten years in an approved school or high school recognised by the Department of Education of the Provincial Government.

(7) The said Board shall elect its president from amongst its own members and his term of office shall be co-extensive with that of the Board. Of the members appointed by the Provincial Government, one member selected by the Provincial Government and belonging to the Department of Education shall act as Secretary to the Board.

(8) Casual vacancies during the term of the said Board shall be filled for the remaining period by election or appointment as the case may be.

59. *Powers and duties of Provincial Board.*—The powers and duties of the said board shall be as follows :

- (a) to examine and recommend schemes for the organisation, co-ordination and expansion of primary education and for the correlation of primary education with the system of education as a whole in the Province;
- (b) to advise the Provincial Government generally on all matters connected with primary education ;
- (c) to exercise such other powers and to perform such other duties as may be prescribed ;

As compared with the Bengal Board, the Bombay Board is more democratic and has the important power to take the initiative on any problem.²³

Such a board serves as a clearing-house for ideas and can materially assist State Governments in policy drafting by making them conversant with the views of non-official experts and representatives of local bodies. *We, therefore, recommend that every State should create a statutory State Board of Primary Education to serve as an important connecting link between the non-official experts, the education departments, and the local bodies associated with the administration of primary education.*

STATE GRANTS TO LOCAL BODIES ON ACCOUNT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

All these four direct activities of State Governments can only use a small fraction of the amount set aside for primary education and the bulk of it will still be available for giving grants-in-aid to local bodies which are and should continue to be charged with the duty of establishing and maintaining primary schools. The main problem in the finance of primary education, therefore, is to decide the basis on which such grants are given.

(1) *Necessity of Frequent Revisions:*—A historical survey and analysis of the different systems of grants-in-aid which are in vogue at present was given in Chapter II. One aspect of the situation which stands out from this study is that several schemes of grants-in-aid have remained unrevised for years together. The grants to the Delhi Municipal Committee were fixed in 1932 and remain unaltered even today; the general grants to municipalities in Bihar were fixed on the data for 1922-23 and have not been altered since; the grants for compulsory education were decided in the decade 1917-27 when most of the compulsory education Acts were passed and have remained unamended to this day; and so on. This has been a fundamental defect in the system of

²³ Assam has also created a State Board of Primary Education under the Act of 1947. But the purpose of this Board is entirely different. It functions in lieu of local bodies and not as their co-ordinating authority at the State.

educational administration and is largely responsible for the slow progress of primary education. A system of grants-in-aid serves a useful purpose over a long period only if the expansion programme is already complete and the cost of living remains fairly steady. But the conditions prevailing in India at present are just the opposite. The country is anxious to expand primary education at an unprecedented pace as well as to overhaul it radically; and the cost of living is also rising very quickly since 1938-39. The finances required to support the programme of primary education, therefore, increase so rapidly that any system of grants-in aid, however cleverly designed, becomes obsolete in a very short time. Hence the necessity of revising grants-in-aid plans as frequently as possible, say every five years.

It is not that the systems of grants-in-aid are not revised at all. When they begin to collapse under the pressure of new situations, patch work reforms are often undertaken instead of a complete overhaul. In several States, the government found that no new idea could be put across on the old basis of grants ; and hence specific purpose grants outside the usual scheme were sanctioned, as described earlier for such items



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made it obligatory on the government to pay a grant-in-aid equal to the education cess collected. But this basis, as stated above, was abandoned in 1941. The grants given by the State of Bihar to municipalities which have not introduced compulsory education are also based on the same principle. A programme of universal and compulsory education can never be realised on this basis because a local body will not be able to produce, from its own resources, an amount equal to that given as grant-in-aid by the State. This difficulty will be all the more greater when the resources of the State are strengthened by federal subsidies. Even if a rich municipality is able to work on this basis, it is certainly unfair to apply the basis to *all* municipalities as in Bihar or to district boards as in Madras. This basis was devised at a time when ideas about the financial implications of universal education were very vague and it has become so obsolete with the increase in population and the rise in prices, that it needs to be abandoned at a very early date. The third and the most popular basis is that of *proportional* grants. Here, grants-in-aid are sanctioned at a prescribed proportion of the total expenditure on primary education. It must be noted that proportional grants can be so planned as to secure equalisation. In Bombay, for instance, the authorised municipalities are given proportional grants ; but the proportions are so varied as to result in equalisation. Such cases are, however, excluded from this group and the term "proportional" grants is used only to denote that system where a flat rate of proportional grants is made applicable to a large number of local bodies *without* taking the differences between them into consideration. This system has been adopted in most cases under the compulsory education Acts—the most common provision being that the State shall bear such and such a percentage of the additional expenditure on primary education. A little earlier, the disadvantages of such proportional grants have already been discussed in connection with the proposal to regulate federal grants at 30 per cent of the total expenditure on primary education. All these disadvantages are also applicable to proportional grants given by the State to local bodies and, in addition, two other difficulties are actually felt. Firstly, the State grants are proportional to "approved" expenditure. Unfortunately, the term "approved" is not easy to define and as the final authority to decide whether a particular item is "approved" or not is the State Government itself, complaints are made that legitimate claims of local bodies for expenditure incurred by them are often flouted on technical grounds. This happens particularly in periods of financial stringency and the history of grants-in-aid in Bombay between 1929 and 1937 amply bears out this statement.²⁴ Secondly, the rule that state grants for compulsory education are to be proportional to *additional* expenditure involved in the scheme affects the backward districts adversely. An educationally advanced district (which is generally also rich) has a shorter distance to go and the *additional* cost of introducing compulsion in it is much less than the additional cost of introducing compulsion in a poor district which is generally less advanced and has therefore a longer way to go. The proportional grants, therefore, expect the richer district to contribute

²⁴ For details, vide Appendix B(10).

a smaller amount than the poorer one does in order to reap the benefit of compulsory education. In spite of its popularity due to administrative simplicity and convenience, therefore, this basis also needs a radical revision. The fourth basis is *that of arbitrary block grant*. This has been adopted in Bengal for municipalities and district school boards alike, although, in theory, the basis of a proportional grant at 50 per cent seems to have been regarded as the goal. So little can be said in favour of this obsolete basis that there is hardly any justification to continue it. Even in Bengal, it has already been abandoned in theory and in Madhya Pradesh (where it is adopted with reference to *Janapada Sabhas*), a revision is already under consideration. The fifth basis is that of *specific purpose grants* which is generally used in combination with some other principal basis. As stated earlier, it is mainly used at present to patch up a crumbling structure of obsolete principles. But the basis is theoretically sound and it has a legitimate place in all systems of grant-in-aid when the State Governments want to single out specific services or programmes for special development. The sixth and the last basis is *meeting the deficit* principle which, since 1947, has been adopted in Bombay in respect of non-authorised municipalities and district school boards. Theoretically, there is no alternative to it when the local body concerned has extremely meagre resources; and if properly worked, it can be used to secure equalisation as well. It is also a generally welcome proposal to local bodies and its only drawback is that it leads inevitably to centralisation and transfers all headaches to the State Government alone.

We have thus six different bases to choose from. Besides, past history shows some others such as capitation grants, payment by results system, salary-grant system, etc. Each of these bases has some advantages and some disadvantages. Each one of these can serve a useful purpose in certain situations and every one of them will create trouble in certain others. In choosing a basis for adoption, therefore, regard must be paid to the needs of the situation during the period under consideration and a basis or a combination of bases which meets the situation best has to be adopted. In the peculiar position of primary education at the present moment, we feel that no single basis would be so useful as a combination of some of them. After a careful study of the problem, we recommend that State grants to local bodies on account of primary education should be based on a combination of the proportional grant (used to secure a broad equalisation as well as to provide for rapid expansion), a special grant for backward or necessitous areas, and specific purpose grants.

A few words of explanation are necessary here. The proportional grant basis has been recommended because of its simplicity and utility. But in fixing proportions of grants-in-aid, lower percentage should be fixed for richer bodies so that a sort of equalisation is automatically reached. The Bombay grants to municipalities is a good example. Secondly, the proportions should not be rigidly fixed. Under the English Act of 1944, the parliamentary grants to local authorities were fixed so as to rise from 50 to 55 per cent. The same idea can be adopted and a higher percentage of grant made available as expansion takes place.

Thirdly, care must be taken to avoid the bickerings that usually take place over "approving" expenditure. The Gordian knot can be cut by adopting the Madras practice and making the State grant proportional, not to a controversial thing like "approved" expenditure, but to an easily ascertainable thing like the contribution made by the local body to the primary education fund. In the alternative, sensible and liberal policies should be adopted in approving expenditure and not use this phrase to avoid the legitimate claims of local bodies.²⁵

It will generally be found that very satisfactory equalisation cannot be obtained through the proportional grant alone. An additional grant for necessitous or backward areas has, therefore, been suggested. The question naturally arises as to what factors determine such areas and how the disadvantages arising therefrom can be conveniently met. The problem has not unfortunately been studied in detail. The only published study available is that of Shri J. P. Naik who tried to examine the relative capacities of the old Bombay Province.²⁶ He found that backwardness or necessity could be judged from (1) revenue per capita; (2) density of population; (3) number of villages with small population—say 500 or less and the population living in them; (4) existence of forest areas; (5) proportion of the population of backward communities such as Harijans or aboriginal and hill tribes, etc. If careful studies on these lines are carried out and a suitable scale is devised to give larger assistance to the more needy areas, the approximation to equalisation would be almost complete.

Similarly, specific purpose grants should be freely used to emphasize special activities such as research, opening of new schools, introduction of compulsion, construction of school-buildings, etc. They do incalculable good in a period of transition like the present.

(3) *Whether State Grants Should be Statutory or Discretionary*: State grants for primary education are sometimes statutory and sometimes discretionary. The grants for voluntary education are generally discretionary because the necessity to legislate on the subject never arose. On the other hand, when compulsory education Acts were passed, they generally made provision for the grant-in-aid which the State should pay towards approved schemes of compulsion and hence the grants for compulsory education are mostly statutory. But the amount of statutory grants gets limited in two ways: In the first place, except where compulsion is wide-spread as in the Bombay State today, the areas under compulsion are few so that the expenditure on compulsory education looks necessarily small in comparison with that on voluntary education. Secondly, the statutory grants for compulsory education are sanctioned, as stated earlier, for *additional* expenditure only. An illustration will show clearly how this limitation works. Suppose there is a local body with about 50 per cent of the children already at school and its expenditure is, say, X rupees. If this local body were to prepare a scheme of compulsion

²⁵ Vide Appendix B(11).

²⁶ Vide Appendix B(12).

involving a cost of Y rupees, only the grant-in-aid on Y rupees will be considered as statutory and the earlier expenditure of X rupees will still continue to be regarded on a discretionary basis of grants. Consequently, the extent of statutory grants is very small at present and it would be no exaggeration to say that most grants for primary education are paid at the discretion of State Governments.

The problem whether State grants should be discretionary or statutory has been often discussed and the local bodies have consistently demanded that they should be placed on a statutory basis. The Kale Committee appointed by the Bombay Government supported this view very strongly and was of the opinion that the claims of local bodies to receive grants should be so secure as to be enforceable in a court of law.²⁷ But the issue has generally been evaded because the State Governments are unwilling to commit themselves to legal liabilities. We, however, think that universal compulsory education is a matter of such urgent and national significance that it is not desirable to make its progress hang on the "discretion" of any authority. One should remember that education is only a stepping stone to compulsion. *We, therefore, recommend that grants for all primary education, whether voluntary or compulsory, should be statutory.* If it is not possible to accept this recommendation, the grants for compulsory education may alone be made statutory with one difference, viz., when a local body introduces compulsory education in any area, the whole of the expenditure on primary education in that area—and not merely the additional cost of the scheme—should be regarded as statutory. If this suggestion is accepted, it will give some respite to the State Governments to adjust themselves to the new view-point; it will place a premium on compulsory education and induce local bodies to go in for it; and ultimately, when compulsory education becomes universal, the two recommendations will coalesce.

(4) *Whether Grants for Compulsory Education Should be Different From Those for Voluntary Education* :—The fourth problem that arises from a study of existing practices can be illustrated with reference to Bihar. Here the grants to municipalities are calculated on two different bases accordingly as they have or have not introduced compulsion and the grants-in-aid for compulsory education are given at a higher rate than those for voluntary education. The question at issue, therefore, is this : Is this principle sound and should it be generalised ?

We have already suggested above that grants for compulsory education may be made statutory in full and this will make a fundamental difference in the grants for compulsory or voluntary education. We agree with the Bihar view that grants for compulsory education have to be given at a higher rate than those for voluntary education. The necessity for this step arises out of the limitations of local resources. When the extent of expansion of primary education is limited, local resources can meet a large part of it and the grant-in-aid can be placed at a lower rate. But as primary education begins to expand (and/or prices rise), the total cost of the primary education programme begins to mount

²⁷ *Vide* Appendix B(13).

up rapidly. The local resources are inelastic with the result that, in spite of straining them to the utmost, they are only able to meet a smaller and smaller part of the total bill until a stage is reached when almost the whole of the deficit is met by the State. The history of the local fund cess in Bombay will illustrate this clearly. When it was first imposed in 1863 at one anna in a rupee it was felt that it will meet all the expenditure on primary education. In 1870, it was decided to give it a State grant at one-third of the total expenditure. In 1904-05 the rate of grant-in-aid was raised to 50 per cent. In 1923 when the first P. E. Act was passed, the grant-in-aid stood at 88 per cent. In 1947, in spite of the raising of the cess to three annas in a rupee, the State has accepted full responsibility to meet the deficit and the grant-in-aid works out at about 96 per cent in practice. The rate will rise even higher when compulsory education, which is now limited to villages with a population of 1,000 or more, is made universal. The fundamental error in most of our compulsory education Acts is to assume that the rate of grant-in-aid for compulsory education would be the same as that for voluntary education.²⁸ That is why they have failed financially. We, therefore, recommend that the grants-in-aid for compulsory education should necessarily be at a higher rate than those for voluntary education.

What these rates of grant-in-aid should be is a matter of local detail and no general recommendation can be made about it. *We suggest that all local bodies should be required to survey their areas and prepare development schemes on a five-year basis at a time. The actual rate of grant-in-aid should then be fixed in view of all the circumstances of the case and in such a manner as to enable the local body to complete the programme as scheduled. Equalisation should be secured by defining a minimum foundation programme to be reached by all local bodies within a specified time and by giving priority and preferential treatment to the local bodies which for no fault of theirs fall below it so that they are enabled to reach the foundation programme as early as possible.*

(c) *The Responsibility of Local Bodies for Financing Primary Education*:—At the lowest rung of the ladder stand the local bodies whose responsibilities in financing primary education may now be considered.

At the outset, it is necessary to clear up a common misunderstanding. When comparisons are made between the role of Indian local bodies in financing primary education with that of local bodies in foreign countries, one often hears such statements as this: the local bodies in the U.S.A. pay about 90 per cent of the cost of primary education; those in the U.K. pay about 45 per cent; and those in Japan pay about 70 per cent, etc. Statements such as these apparently place the Indian local bodies at a disadvantage. But a little careful consideration will show that they are grossly unfair to our local bodies. It is not proper to compare the contribution of local bodies to primary education without comparing the total resources which the law of the country gives to them. In England, taxes on land are treated as local and on that analogy, our

²⁸The Bombay P. E. Act, 1923, even assumed that the grant-in-aid for compulsory education would be 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent while that for voluntary education would be 88 per cent.

district boards can be compared to the county councils only if land revenue is transferred to them. In such an event, our district boards would certainly be able to cut a much better figure in supporting primary education than they do at present. Moreover, it is not only the resources but the functions of local bodies also that have to be taken into consideration if the local bodies in one country are to be compared with those in another. This becomes at once a difficult and complicated affair and we would, therefore, discourage all facile comparisons. It is not even possible to compare the local bodies in one Indian State with those in another in a superficial manner because the resources assigned to them vary from state to state. It is, therefore, better and more equitable to compare, not the proportion of the total expenditure on primary education which local bodies contribute, but the proportion of their own resources which they assign for primary education.

Another general point to be remembered is that the local bodies in India can, as a whole, contribute only a small part of the total expenditure required for primary education. A small calculation will make the point clear. Let us assume the population to be 100. The number of children in the age group of 6-14 in this population would be 20. The cost per pupil in a primary school is Rs. 30/- p. a. in Bombay State. Taking it at Rs. 20/- on an all-India basis, the cost of universal primary education would be Rs. 400/- or rupees four per head at the very minimum. The total resources of local bodies in India today are roughly Rs. 1¼/- per capita and only a portion of this can be allocated to primary education (say about four or five annas per head of the population). It, therefore, becomes clear that the local bodies cannot, even after making allowance for the usual proposals to augment their resources, contribute anything but a small fraction of the total expenditure on primary education.

While this statement is true of local bodies as a whole, it is also true that, within themselves local bodies exhibit a tremendous variability. Between a corporation like Bombay and a small village *panchayat* in a backward tract, there is a world of difference ; and a system of local finance of primary education must take these varying capacities into account and be adjusted to suit them.

If these two fundamental concepts are granted, it will at once become evident that there is no longer any justification for the old view that the residuary financial responsibility in primary education lies on local bodies. Under modern conditions, this has to be shifted to the State (supported by the Centre) and therefore the main problems in the local finance of primary education reduce themselves to the following three issues :

1. How should local contributions to the support of primary education be exploited to the maximum ? Would it be desirable from this point of view to compel local bodies to earmark a specific portion of their total revenues for primary education, or to stimulate voluntary contributions on the lines of the French system of school chest, or to make the levy of an educational cess obligatory ?

2. How should State grants-in-aid be related to the different types of local bodies with unequal financial capacities?
3. What financial powers should be delegated to local bodies in respect of primary education in order to stimulate local interest to the utmost and to enlist the largest possible support of local finance?

Let us discuss these seriatim.

INCREASING LOCAL SUPPORT FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION

(1) *Should the Local Bodies be Required to Earmark a Part of Their Revenues for Primary Education?*—It has often been suggested that it would be desirable to make a minimum effort²⁹ obligatory on local bodies by creating a statutory obligation on their part to earmark a specified portion of their revenue for primary education. It must be noted that the problem is limited in scope. Where an education cess is levied by a local body, the cess itself becomes a measure of local effort; and the problem assumes importance only where the local body does not levy an education cess and assigns a portion of its general revenues to primary education at its discretion.

Speaking of municipalities first, there are a few precedents to support the idea. In the Punjab, the municipalities were required by rule to provide a sum equal to ten per cent of their annual income for education; but this requirement was cancelled in 1908 and it was decided that the provision of an adequate amount should be secured through the general control exercised by the Commissioner over municipal budgets, the Inspector of Schools and the Director of Public Instruction being empowered to represent matters to the Commissioner if in their opinion the provision made by a municipality was inadequate. This concept, however, has survived in Delhi Municipal Committee to this day because its grant-in-aid plan was originally modelled on Lahore. In Ajmer, the two municipalities are required to earmark $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of their revenues for primary education. In Madhya Pradesh, the municipalities are under an obligation to spend $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of their revenues on education but they do not get any grant-in-aid on this expenditure. The practice of earmarking a portion of municipal revenue for education, therefore, does not appear to be very popular at present. We have recommended elsewhere that the levy of an adequate education cess be made obligatory on all municipalities. If that recommendation is accepted, this question will not be relevant at all. But if that recommendation is, for some reason, not accepted, we recommend that it would be in the interest of education to make it obligatory on municipalities to earmark a specified proportion of their net revenue for primary education. The exact proportion to be specified in each State may be fixed after a suitable local enquiry, but we have no doubt that, if such a legal restriction is imposed and suitably exercised, the resources available for primary education would be naturally augmented. We cannot, however, support the Madhya Pradesh practice whereby municipalities are required to earmark a part of their revenue for primary edu-

²⁹ This is a technical expression used here to denote the fraction of contribution to primary education. Total local revenue.

cation but get no grant-in-aid thereon. The idea of requiring municipalities to assign a minimum revenue for primary education is to increase the financial resources available for compulsion and not to enable the State Governments to evade their legitimate responsibilities. We are, therefore, very emphatic on the point that *all funds thus earmarked for primary education should be entitled to receive grants-in-aid according to rules.*

In the rural areas, the local cesses form an important part of the revenues of local boards. The rates of these cesses vary and quite frequently a portion of the proceeds is earmarked for primary education. The existing position in this respect is given below :

State	Rate of cess levied	Portion earmarked for Primary Education
1. Andaman and Nicobar Islands.	Different kinds of cess at varying rates are levied.	No portion is earmarked for Primary Education.
2. Assam	Assam Primary Education Act provides for the levy of Education Cess but this provision has not yet been given effect to.	
3. Bihar	Formerly Cess was levied at the rate of one anna on the value of land rent to be paid for land-owned. In the years 1944 to 1946, it was increased to annas two.	According to Article 91 of Bihar Education Code for the purpose of grants from the Government, district boards are divided into three classes :— Class I—Boards with cess income of less than Rs. 150 per 1,000 of population. Class II—Boards with a cess income not more than Rs. 250 per 1000 of the population. Class III—The remainder. As a condition to the receipt of the grants sanctioned by government in the year 1923, the boards are required to spend from their own sources a sum equal to the average sum spent in the years 1919-20 to 1922-23 or to a fixed percentage of their cess demand, 10% from Class I, 12½% from Class II and 15% from Class III, whichever is greater.
4. Bilaspur	Primary Education is not administered by local bodies.	No amount of the cess levied is earmarked for primary education.
5. Bhopal	No cess is levied	Does not arise.
6. Bombay	Three annas on every rupee of Land revenue levied by District Local Boards.	15 pies.
7. Coorg	District Fund Cess of annas three in the rupee is levied by Coorg District.	No portion of District Fund Cess is earmarked for primary education which is the responsibility of the government.

State	Rate of cess levied	Portion earmarked for Primary Education
8. Delhi	Different kinds of cesses at varying rates are levied by the local bodies of Delhi.	The portion of cess earmarked for education is given below : 1. <i>Delhi Municipality</i> :—10% of the revenue as provided in the Education Code but it is spending 18% on it. 2. <i>New Delhi Municipality</i> :—Percentage of expenditure on primary education to total income varies from year to year. During 1950-51 it was 4.84. 3. <i>District Board, Delhi</i> :—Rate of local cess is four annas per rupee in the land revenue and about Rs. 90,000/- per annum is expected from this source. No definite percentage of it is fixed for education though about 40 to 50% is spent on it. 4. <i>Notified Area Committee, Mehrauli</i> :—Different kinds of taxes are levied at different rates, total income being about Rs. 30,000/- per annum. Nearly 1/5th of the cess is earmarked for primary education. Does not arise.
9. Himachal Pradesh	No cess is levied.	
10. Hyderabad	Hitherto it was one anna per rupee of the land revenue. It has now been increased to two annas.	Three pies were earmarked for Primary Education. As a result of increase in the cess, share of Primary Education will also be doubled.
11. Jammu and Kashmir	Education cess is charged at annas 12 per hundred rupees of the land revenue.	Whole of it is spent on Primary Education.
12. Kutch	Primary Education is financed by the government and not by local bodies.	Does not arise.
13. Madhya Bharat	No cess is levied.	Does not arise.
14. Madras	Under Madras Elementary Education Act, local bodies are authorised to levy an education tax. At present this tax is levied by most of the District Boards at 36 pies in the rupee of land revenue, while Municipal Council can levy the education tax upto 5% on property rentals.	The entire proceeds of the cess are credited to the Elementary Education Fund of the respective local bodies.
15. Manipur	No education cess is levied	Does not arise.

State	Rate of cess levied	Portion earmarked for Primary Education
16. Madhya Pradesh	Three kinds of cesses are leviable by <i>Janapada Sabhas</i> : 1. Compulsory cess—18 pies per rupee. 2. Optional cess—this is additional cess to the extent of 12 pies. 3. Special school rates—according to the circumstances and property within the limits.	Nil—except the special school rate.
17. Mysore	Different rates of local cesses are levied on headings like railway, irrigation and education. Education cess is at the rate of nine pies in the rupee on items of land revenue, other than railway assessment, land revenue, miscellaneous, excise, mining and forest revenue.	Education cess is chiefly for Primary Education.
18. Pepsu	No cess is levied	Does not arise.
19. Orissa	Annas two per rupee of land revenue.	Local bodies are required to spend at least 10% of their cess on education. No portion is earmarked for Primary Education.
20. Punjab	Minimum of one anna in the rupee of land revenue but ordinarily the district boards levy upto four annas in the rupee. There is no maximum.	There is no Primary Education fund but the local boards are required to spend at least 25% of their total net income.
21. Rajasthan	Primary Education is financed by the government and not by local bodies.	Does not arise.
22. Saurashtra	Local bodies have been formed only recently and have not taken responsibility for education. They might be levying local cess but no portion of it is earmarked for the Primary Education.	Does not arise.
23. Travancore-Cochin	No cess is collected for the administration of Primary Education.	Does not arise.
24. Tripura	No education cess is levied.	
25. Vindhya Pradesh	Education is financed by government and not by local bodies.	Does not arise.
26. West Bengal	All immovable properties on which the road and public cesses are levied, shall be liable to the payment of Primary Education cess which is levied at the rate of 3½ pice on each rupee of annual net profits from mines and Quarries and at the rate of five pice on each rupee of annual value of land and of annual net profits from other immovable properties.	Proceeds of the Primary Education cess and of the Primary Education taxes in each district are paid to the Primary Education fund for expenditure on Primary Education after deducting a very small percentage for meeting the cost of collections.

It will be seen from the above that the position with regard to the rural local cess is very fluid. In some States, no such cess is levied at all.

In those States where a cess is levied, both the minimum and maximum rates are generally prescribed by legislation, although, in some cases, either one or the other limit does not appear to have been specifically laid down. In most cases, a definite portion of the local cess is earmarked for primary education. *On a careful review of the whole position, therefore, we recommend that a cess on land-revenue should be universally levied in all areas and that the legislation on the subject should provide for the minimum and maximum rates of such levy as well as for the portion of the total proceeds that should be earmarked for primary education.*

In the village panchayats, as in the municipalities, we recommend that a portion of the total revenue should be earmarked for primary education. The levy of an independent education cess would present administrative difficulties at the *panchayat* level and the best way out would be to earmark a portion of the total revenue for educational purposes.

(2) *School Chest*:—Another interesting proposal made to augment local revenue for primary schools is that the French system of "School Chest" should be adopted universally in urban and rural areas.⁸⁰ The principle underlying the scheme is to secure private benevolence to help the development of primary schools. The idea is really worth a trial. It would, of course, be wrong to expect too much from this scheme and to make essential services depend upon such a precarious revenue. At the same time, it would also be wrong not to leave the door open for private benevolence to come in and help primary schools. In India, a strong tradition has always enlisted benevolence in support of education and there is no doubt that, if properly fostered, the system of school chest can secure a fairly good amount for the support of primary education. The factors essential for its success are two : (a) a grant in some proportion to the amount raised locally; and (b) full authority for the local people to collect and spend the amount. These requirements can be easily provided for and the scheme can be successfully adopted without much difficulty.

In this connection we would invite attention to the fact that a sort of "school chest" has been in existence in the Surat District of Bombay State for several years. It is not recognised officially and receives no grant-in-aid; and yet, it has made considerable progress.⁸¹ The result of the experiment shows the practicability of the idea under Indian conditions. *We, therefore, recommend that the French system of "school chest" should be universally adopted with such changes as may be necessary to make it suitable for local conditions.* It will bring in some money and, what is more, form a valuable link in bringing the school closer to the local community.

⁸⁰ For details of school chest, *vide* Appendix A, para 6.

⁸¹ *Vide* Appendix B(14).

(3) *Levy of Education Cesses*:—The third and probably the most important suggestion put forward to augment local revenues for primary education is that the levy of an education cess should be made obligatory on all local bodies. The problem can be conveniently discussed separately for different types of local bodies.

(i) *Municipalities*:—The legal authority to levy an education cess is widely provided in Municipal Acts. But in actual practice, it is levied in the State of Madras only as a surcharge on the property-tax. We feel that there is a strong case for the general levy of an education cess in all municipal areas. Taxes in the name of education are more willingly paid than others, and hence the levy of an education cess will not be so unwelcome as is sometimes represented. *We, therefore, recommend that the Municipal Acts should be amended so as to make the levy of an education cess obligatory on all municipalities.* The law should prescribe the minimum and maximum rates for such levy and leave it to the municipality concerned to fix the actual rate.³²

(ii) *District Boards*:—In rural areas, an education cess as well as an education tax at the district level is levied in Bengal. The education cess is levied at the rate of five pice on each rupee of annual value of land and at the rate of 3½ pice on each rupee of annual net profits from mines and quarries. The imposition and realisation of the cess are done by the revenue authorities and the proceeds are paid by the Collector to the District Primary Education Fund. The Education Tax is levied on trade, business, profession and employment in the light of the assessment made under the Village Self-Government Act, 1919, by the District Magistrate and is realised through the union boards and *panchayats* and made over to the District Primary Education Fund. In Madras, the education tax is levied at rates which vary from ten pies in a rupee of land-revenue in Bellary and Tanjore districts to 37 pies in Salem (average 20.5 pies). It was also shown earlier that the local fund cesses levied in different States are really education cesses because a specific portion of their proceeds is earmarked for expenditure on primary education and we have already recommended the universal levy of such cesses and the earmarking of a substantial part of their proceeds for primary education. The only issues that arise for discussion are two:

- (i) Should the education tax levied in West Bengal on trade, business profession and employment be adopted elsewhere?
- (ii) Is there any other source for the levy of education cesses?

On the first issue, *we recommend that the West Bengal practice of levying an educational cess on profits from mines and quarries as well as on trade, business, profession, and employments should be brought to the notice of other State Governments who should be requested to consider the feasibility of adopting it in their own areas.* The amounts realised from these sources would ordinarily be small and the administrative

³²This recommendation was made by the Kale Committee also *vide* Appendix B(13).

trouble and difficulties connected with the assessment and collection are rather formidable. It would, therefore, be desirable to leave the matter for local decision rather than insist on uniformity.

On the second issue, we invite attention to an additional source of income that would be accruing to those State Governments that have undertaken the abolition of *zamindari*s. The village *hats* (weekly and daily markets) have been so far under the management of local landlords who have been charging rent from all shopkeepers and merchants who join the *hat*. The legislation for the abolition of the *zamindari* in some of the States provides for the transfer of this income to the State Government. But it has been overlooked that quite a few of the landlords used to maintain *pathshalas*, primary schools, *maktabs* and other educational institutions from their income. While some State Governments might be making special arrangements for religious institutions and trusts, the future of the primary and middle schools maintained hitherto by the landlords, has not, perhaps, received their attention. We, therefore, recommend that the State Governments which have undertaken schemes for the abolition of *zamindari* may consider the advisability of assigning the income from the village markets to village *panchayats* for being used first for the improvement of the market and secondly for the maintenance of the village schools. The collection of the rent from the users of the village market could be easily entrusted to village *panchayats* and realisations of this kind will not be resented because those who pay them would be aware that the amounts realised are directly used for the upkeep of their school and market.

(iii) *Village Panchayats* :—In village *panchayats*, most of the residents of the village would be paying the education cess on land-revenue. They would, therefore, resent the levy of another cess on their houses as well. Moreover, the trouble of assessment and collection of such an independent cess would be far out of proportion to the amount realised. We, therefore, recommend that no education cess be levied compulsorily in village *panchayats*. Instead, a portion of the total revenue be earmarked for expenditure on primary education as already suggested.

We have discussed the problem of increasing local finances for primary education at some length mainly for historical considerations. The old view was that the residuary financial responsibility for primary education was on local bodies and that the State Governments played a secondary role by giving grants-in-aid. Hence, the tradition has been to discuss the problem of increasing local finances for primary education. But, as pointed out earlier, this basic assumption is no longer valid. The extent to which local finances can be increased in support of primary education is very limited, even if all possible suggestions are adopted. While, therefore, no attempt should be spared to increase the local revenues earmarked for primary education, it should be clearly realised that the problem of financing compulsory education cannot be solved at this level. The residuary financial liability for primary education has inevitably shifted to the States (or even to the Centre) and it is at these levels that a satisfactory solution to the problem must be sought for. But as the matter is obviously beyond our terms of reference, we cannot deal with it in the course of this investigation.

ADJUSTMENT OF GRANTS-IN-AID TO THE FINANCIAL CAPACITIES OF LOCAL BODIES

The next problem refers to the manner in which state grants-in-aid should be regulated to stimulate local contributions to the utmost as well as to secure equalisation. This can be conveniently discussed according to the type of local bodies associated with the administration of primary education.

(i) *Municipalities* :—In several States all municipalities are treated alike for the purposes of grant-in-aid. In Madhya Pradesh, for instance, all municipalities get a grant at 50 per cent for all expenditure in excess of $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of their total revenue. In Bihar also, no distinction is made between municipalities (other than those at the district headquarters) on the basis of their economic capacity. Such practices are financially unsound. In our opinion, the policy adopted in the State of Bombay is worthy of serious consideration by all the other States. Here, the fundamental principle is that grants-in-aid are reduced as the wealth of the municipality increases. The municipalities in the State now fall into the following six groups on the basis of grants-in-aid paid to them :

1. *Bombay City* :—Grant-in-aid at 25 per cent of the total expenditure, not exceeding Rs. 25 lakhs in total.
2. *Ahmedabad City* :—Grant-in-aid at 25 per cent of the total approved expenditure for voluntary education. No upper limit as in Bombay. Grant for compulsory education at 50 per cent of the additional expenditure.
3. *Poona, Surat and Sholapur* :—Grant-in-aid at $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent for voluntary education. Grant for compulsory education at 50 per cent of the additional expenditure.
4. *Authorised Municipalities* :—Grant-in-aid at 50 per cent of the approved expenditure both for voluntary and compulsory education.
5. and 6. *Non-authorised Municipalities* :—These municipalities have to levy house-tax at a specified rate and pay all the proceeds as their contribution. If the proceeds exceed one-third of the total expenditure on primary education within the area of the municipality concerned, the excess amount is refunded. Hence municipality naturally divides into two groups—those that contribute one-third of the expenditure and those that contribute less.

In our opinion, the principles underlying these arrangements are sound and worthy of universal adoption. We, therefore, recommend that the authorised municipalities should be graded according to their economic capacity and a sliding scale of grants-in-aid should be adopted in such a manner that the richer municipalities get a lower rate of grant-in-aid. As already recommended, the grants may be fixed in proportion to approved expenditure (or if that were possible, in proportion to the contribution of the municipality),

(ii) *District Boards* :—Between the municipalities and the district boards there are two fundamental differences. The first is that the rural areas are far poorer and can contribute only a very small part of the total expenditure. Secondly, the differences in the economic capacity of one district and another are not so marked as between one municipality and another. It would, therefore, not be a happy proposition to fix different rates of grant for different districts. The experiment made on these lines in Bihar is already obsolete and that in the Punjab has not been very successful. *In our opinion, a better alternative would be to give a general grant-in-aid at the same rate to all district boards, and to superimpose on it a necessitous areas grant which should be given only to backward or poorer districts and which should try to secure equalisation.* Such a course presents fewer administrative difficulties and would cause less heart-burning.

FINANCIAL POWERS TO BE DELEGATED TO TOWN AND VILLAGE SCHOOL COMMITTEES

It was shown in Chapter II that a fundamental weakness of the present system of the administration of primary education is that the village agency is relegated to the background. A most fundamental reform required, therefore, is to bring the rural public in close association with the local school and, with this object in view, we have already recommended the delegation of large powers to town and village school committees. If these powers are to be properly exercised and if the town and village school committees are to function properly, it is necessary to assign adequate financial resources to these bodies. From this point of view, we feel that a modified adoption of the French System would be extremely useful and make the following recommendations :

(1) The most fundamental and radical reform is to confine the activity of the District School Boards to the control of teaching and non-teaching staff and to transfer responsibility in all minor matters of administration to the town and village school committees. Under this system, the salaries and allowances of primary teachers would be paid direct by the District School Board ; but expenditure on all other items would be incurred by the local school committees.

(2) In order to meet the recurring financial liabilities arising out of the functions proposed to be transferred to it, a town school committee may be given the following resources :

(a) It has been recommended earlier that every municipality should be required to assign a specified portion of its total revenue for primary education (or, levy an adequate educational cess in its area). A part of the amount from this source is required for meeting the cost of the teaching staff to some extent and should be taken by the District School Board. But a part of it is meant for other expenditure as well. *We therefore, recommend that a specified portion of the local contribution (say one-third or one-fourth) for primary education should be set aside by the District School Board and handed over to the Local Town School Committee in order to enable it to discharge the functions entrusted to it.*

- (b) It has already been recommended that every primary school should be encouraged to maintain a school chest. The proceeds of this chest should also be placed at the disposal of the local committee in order to meet the expenditure on the local school.
- (c) It has also been recommended that the local school committees should be primarily held responsible for the enforcement of compulsory primary education within their areas. As a further encouragement for this work, all the proceeds of fines realised under the Compulsory Acts should also be handed over to the local committee.

In short, the local financial resources available for a town school committee in order to enable it to perform the duties entrusted to it are as follows :

- (i) A portion of the local contribution for primary education (say one-third or one-fourth) assigned to the Committee by the district school board ;
- (ii) all fees collected in local schools ;
- (iii) proceeds of the school-chest ;
- (iv) fines realised in the local area for compulsory education ; and
- (v) such other purely local receipts as may be assigned by the District School Board from time to time.

In order to stimulate these resources to the utmost and also because they will not be adequate to enable the committee to discharge its responsibilities in a proper way, *we recommend that the district school boards should give a grant-in-aid to the Committee in proportion to the amounts raised locally under items (i) and (iii) above.*

(3) The chief non-recurring expenditure would be the construction of a school building. Here the local resources of the Committee would ordinarily be far too inadequate to meet the liability. *We, therefore, recommend that a suitable system of grant-in-aid should be devised to enable local school committees to construct buildings for their schools.* When it is not possible for the committee to construct it, the work may be executed through a central agency and a suitable local contribution be levied for the purpose.

(4) A comparison of the duties proposed to be transferred to village school committees will show that they are similar to those of the town school committees. The financial powers of the village school committees, therefore, will be similar to those of the town school committees. The only differences would occur in item No. (i) of the local revenues described above. In school committees established in villages where *panchayats* exist, the whole amount of the *panchayat* revenue earmarked for primary education should be placed at the disposal of the local committee. In villages where *panchayats* do not exist, this source will not be available and its place, therefore, should be taken by a grant-in-aid sanctioned by the district school board, preferably on the basis of the pupils attending the school. The other sources of revenue

would remain unaltered. Grants-in-aid will have to be given by the district school board for recurring and non-recurring expenditure and they will have to be more liberal than in the case of the town school committees. The principle of equalisation will operate here on the general lines indicated earlier.

(5) As we visualise the system, each town and village school committee will prepare its own budget and also sanction it. It will be in charge of all expenditure other than teacher's salaries and allowances. The district school board will control all the teaching staff, pay their emoluments direct, supervise the working of all the town and village school committees, sanction grants-in-aid to them and audit their accounts. We feel that this system is far superior to the present one under which the district school boards conduct a highly centralized administration in the matters and the local school committees remain purely advisory and weak. Our proposals will strengthen the school committees to a very great extent and thereby stimulate a much better local response and improve the tone of the administration.

*Procedure of Budgetting, Audit and Accounts :—*The last aspect of the financial administration that we propose to discuss refers to procedures for budgetting, audit and accounts. In so far as audit is concerned, the necessary legislation and administrative machinery for audit (with all its usual implications) has been provided in all states. We have, therefore, no recommendation to make beyond suggesting that audits should be preferably full and annual and that, where such arrangements do not exist, they should be duly provided for. Moreover, if our recommendations regarding the financial powers of school committees are accepted, arrangements will have to be made to audit their accounts as well. This authority should be vested in the district school boards and they should appoint special staff for the purpose.

The second problem refers to the advisability of maintaining separate primary education funds. It is a great advantage to do so. Under this account procedure, the amounts annually sanctioned by the government or local bodies do not lapse at the end of the year and again become available for expenditure on primary education. Moreover, such a fund easily earmarks local assets like fees in primary schools etc., for expenditure on primary education itself and prevents their being merged in the general revenues of the local bodies concerned. In spite of these decisive advantages, a P. E. Fund is not maintained universally. The existing position in this respect is as follows :

- (i) *Ajmer* :—No Primary Education Fund is apparently maintained.
- (ii) No Primary Education Funds are maintained in *Bihar, Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Punjab*.
- (iii) *Bombay* :—Primary Education Funds are maintained by all authorised municipalities and district school boards.

(iv) *Madras* :—Primary Education Funds are maintained by all municipalities and district boards.

(v) *West Bengal* :—The Municipalities do not maintain a Primary Education Fund, but the District School Boards do. (Vide sections 37-39 of the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930).

In view of the advantages involved in the proposal *we recommend that primary education funds should necessarily be maintained in all authorised municipalities and district school boards*. It would be an advantage to maintain them in town or village school committees as well. But in view of the administrative difficulties involved the authority to decide the issue should be left to the district school boards concerned.

The third problem refers to the procedure for sanctioning the budgets. Sometimes this power vests in the local bodies and sometimes in higher authorities. The existing practices in this respect are as follows:

(i) *Ajmer* :—The budget is sanctioned by the local body itself.

(ii) *Bihar* :—The district boards call for the budgets of local boards and union committees under them, and after incorporating their demands, prepare a consolidated budget for the district as a whole and submit them to the State Government for approval (through the Director of Public Instruction). The check on the budgets at the State level is reported to be inadequate. In municipalities, the educational budget is prepared by the District Inspector and are sanctioned by the Municipal Commissioners. Copies of the estimates are then forwarded by the Municipal Commissioners to the District Officer, who after examining the Budget, sends extracts showing details of the income and expenditure under the head "Education" to the Inspector. The Inspector will bring to the notice of the Director any points on which he considers the budget defective. The Director will, if necessary, refer the case to the government for orders.

(iii) *Bombay* :—The authorised municipalities sanction their own budgets. The budgets of the district school boards, however, are to be approved by the State Government.

(iv) *Coorg* :—The budgets are sanctioned by the local bodies themselves.

(v) *Delhi* :—In New Delhi Municipal Committee, the budget is passed by the municipality but the Director of Education is consulted in preparing it. In the other local bodies, the final powers in this respect vest in the local bodies themselves.

- (vi) *Himachal Pradesh* :—The educational budget of the District Board is prepared by Secretary of the District Board in consultation with the District Inspector of Schools. The estimates thus prepared are put before the meeting of the District Board held for the purpose and it is then incorporated in the consolidated budget of the District Board. This consolidated budget is then sent to the Government for approval and sanction. Re-appropriations under the same heads within the budget allotments sanctioned by the government can be effected by the Chairman from one sub-head to the other. Supplementary budgets are required to be submitted to the government for approval and sanction. Regarding the Municipal Committee, the budget estimates are prepared by the Secretary and the District Inspector of Schools is not at all consulted. Thereafter the procedure is the same as for the District Board.
- (vii) *Madhya Pradesh* :—The municipalities sanction their own budgets. The *Janapada Sabhas* can also sanction them except when they are indebted to the government. In this case the budget is submitted to the State Government for confirmation.
- (viii) *Madras* :—The authority to sanction budgets vests in local bodies.
- (ix) *Punjab* :—The educational budget of the District Boards is prepared by the District Inspector of Schools and submitted by him to the Board through the Secretary of the District Board. The District Inspector of Schools has, however, nothing to do with the preparation of the budget of the Urban Committees which is done by the committees themselves. The educational budgets of the local bodies are finally approved by the Commissioners of the divisions through the Deputy Commissioners of the districts. A copy of the budget is sent to the Inspector of Schools for comments but his voice in the framing of the budget of a local body is not effective. The procedure for sanctioning re-appropriations and supplementary grants is the same as followed in the case of the preparation of the budget.
- (x) *Uttar Pradesh* :—The budgets are sanctioned by the local bodies.
- (xi) *West Bengal* :—The municipalities sanction their own budget, the budgets of the district school boards are submitted to the State Government for approval (section 40 of the Bengal (Rural) P.E. Act, 1930).

We cannot accept the proposal that the budgets of the educational bodies should be finally sanctioned by the local bodies concerned and not by any higher authority. Where the Government meets all the deficit in the budget (as in the case of the district school boards of Bombay), it will certainly be essential to require the approval of the State Government to the educational budgets of local bodies. Even where the position is not so specific the amount of State grants-in-aid is so large that we feel it

desirable to retain same controlling voice to the State Governments. At least for some time to come, therefore, *we recommend that the approval of the State Government should be required to the budgets of all district school boards and authorised municipalities. In order to reduce red tape, however, we also recommend that powers regarding reappropriations in the budget may be delegated to local bodies.*

6. *Private Schools* :—Another important administrative issue in which State Governments and local bodies have to collaborate and which is the last to be discussed here is that of the control of primary schools conducted by agencies other than local bodies or the government. Here the position can fundamentally fall under any one of the following three categories :

- (a) Private primary schools are directly controlled by the State Government and the local bodies have nothing to do with them. This position prevails in Madras and it also prevailed in England between 1870 and 1902. The principal factor responsible for this system was the unwillingness on the part of private schools to submit to local control when it was proposed to transfer primary education to local bodies. This was especially true of the attitude of mission schools at a time when "Government" meant British rule and "local bodies" meant Indian control. Although the system thus arose out of purely historical accidents, it has strongly entrenched itself as a tradition in certain areas and any attempt to change it is bound to meet with considerable resistance.
- (b) In some States, the local bodies are in charge of all primary schools—those maintained under their direct control as well as those under private management and the government retains certain supervisory powers. This position is found in Bombay and is justified on the principle of decentralization limited only by the democratic desire to guarantee the freedom of private enterprise. In this case, the local bodies are statutorily controlling private primary schools in their areas; and the Government retains a few powers to itself in order to see that no hardships are caused to private enterprise. These powers include the right to entertain an appeal against an order of the School Board refusing or withdrawing recognition; the right to frame rules and regulations; and the right to hold inspections.
- (c) In some cases, the local bodies are placed in full authority over private schools and the step is justified on the ground of unified control which leads to economy and efficiency. There is no such State in India; but illustrations are found abroad.

Of these two positions, the second is a compromise between the first and the third and is best suited to Indian conditions from the administrative point of view. *We, therefore, recommend that (a) local bodies associated with the administration of primary education should ordinarily be in charge of all primary schools in their areas, whether maintained under their direct control or managed by private agencies; (b) that the authority to control and guide the private primary schools in their areas should*

generally vest in the local bodies themselves ; and (c) that the State Government should retain such powers to themselves with a view to see that no hardships are caused to private enterprise.

If this fundamental view is accepted, the discussion of the several issues that arise in this connection becomes simplified. These may be stated as follows :

1. Who frames the rules and regulations regarding these schools ?
2. Who grants recognition and withdraws it ?
3. Who inspects these schools ?
4. Who sanctions grant-in-aid ?
5. Are the grants-in-aid paid to these schools by the government direct or by local bodies, or by the government through the agency of local bodies (i.e. all expenditure on such grants-in-aid is entitled to State grants at 100 per cent) ? If the grants are paid by local bodies, in what manner does the State give grant-in-aid on such expenditure ?

Let us discuss these seriatim.

(a) *Rules and Regulations* :—In this respect, the existing position is as under :

1. *Ajmer* :—The government frames the necessary rules and regulations for the control and guidance of private primary schools.
2. Necessary rules and regulations are framed by the State Governments in *Bombay, Bihar, Coorg, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Orissa and Uttar Pradesh*.
3. The rules and regulations required are framed by the Government of India for *Delhi and Himachal Pradesh*.
4. *Punjab* :—The primary schools maintained by voluntary associations are subject to the rules and regulations laid down in the Punjab Education Code. The rules and regulations regarding the internal administration of the school are framed by these managing committees or governing bodies and require the approval of the Department with regard to provident fund, grades of pay and dearness allowance to teachers.
5. *West Bengal* :—The basic and the general rules are framed by the government in the Education Department. Subsidiary rules, within the general frame work of the rules framed by the government, are also framed by the local bodies. Subject to the prescribed conditions and the approved rules and regulations, the local managing authorities of the schools may also frame such rules as are deemed necessary for the proper and efficient management of the schools.

In view of the fundamental position explained earlier, *the system prevailing in West Bengal appears to be satisfactory and we recommend that it should be adopted generally*. The State Governments should

legislate on broad matters of principle, viz., the procedure for grant and withdrawal of recognition, conditions of recognition, principles of grants-in-aid, maxima and minima of grants-in-aid, curricula, etc. The local bodies should fix up a few more details such as registers to be maintained, rates of grant-in-aid (which should be made to vary according to local conditions), school hours and vacations, admissions, withdrawals and transfer of pupils, etc. And the managements should make rules regarding service conditions of staff, discipline rules for students, provident fund for staff, and such other matters of internal administration. The rules made by local bodies should require the approval of the Director of Education and those made by the managements should require the approval of the school boards concerned.

(b) *Grant of Recognition and Withdrawal*:—Here the existing position is as follows :

1. *Ajmer* :—The Director of Education grants or withdraws recognition. No provisions for an appeal have apparently been made.
2. *Bihar* :—The recognition of primary schools is granted by the district or the deputy inspectors of schools on the recommendation of the sub-inspectors of schools. When raising of a status of a primary school is involved, the local bodies concerned have to be consulted. Recognition of a school may be withdrawn by the authorities competent to grant recognition on specific reasons and ordinarily at the end of the year.
3. *Bombay* :—In the areas of authorised municipalities, recognition is granted or withdrawn by the Municipal School Board, on the recommendation of the District Educational Inspector. An appeal to the Educational Inspector is also provided.

In rural areas, the procedure for the grant of recognition or its withdrawal is the same; but the District School Board is not empowered to recognise a new school unless the previous permission of government is obtained.

4. *Coorg, Madras and Orissa* :—Recognition is granted or withdrawn by the district officers of the Education Department.
5. *Delhi* :—Recognition is granted or withdrawn by the Directorate of Education, Delhi.
6. *Himachal Pradesh* :—The powers vest in the Head of the State Education Department. No appeal is apparently provided for.
7. *Madhya Pradesh* :—Recognition is granted or withdrawn by the district officers of the Education Department.
There is provision for an appeal to the Divisional Inspector of Schools.
8. *Punjab* :—The powers are vested in Divisional Inspectors.
9. *Uttar Pradesh* :—Recognition is granted or withdrawn by the President of the local body concerned on the advice of the District Inspecting Staff.

10. *West Bengal* :—In municipal areas, recognition is granted or withdrawn by the District Inspector of Schools. An appeal lies with the Director of Public Instruction.

In rural areas, recognition is granted or withdrawn by district school boards on the recommendation of the State Inspecting Officer. An appeal to the Director of Public Instruction is also provided as in the urban areas.

In view of our fundamental view that private schools should be under the control of local bodies subject to a few safeguards, we recommend (a) that the inspecting officers of the Department should be required to carry out, in the first instance, an investigation into every proposal for the grant or withdrawal of recognition to a private primary school ; (b) that the school board concerned should consider the report of such investigation and then decide whether recognition should or should not be granted, or should be withdrawn ; and (c) any party aggrieved by the order of the school board should have the right to prefer an appeal to the Director of Education or to any other specified officer. These provisions will eliminate most chances of hardship to private enterprise and will, at the same time, secure decentralization of authority and a more unified control of primary education.

(c) *Inspection* :—As recommended earlier, inspection of all primary schools—whether public or private—should be done by State inspecting officers. This is practically the position today and it should continue.

(d) *Sanction of Grants-in-aid* :—In this case, there are three fundamental principles : (i) Recommendations regarding the amount of grant-in-aid must be made by inspecting officers ; (ii) sanctioning of grant-in-aid should ordinarily be done by the same authority who gives recognition ; and (iii) no appeal should be provided on the subject of the amount of grant-in-aid as such provision is more likely to be abused than helpful. The first and the third of these principles are adopted everywhere ; but the second is not always accepted. The following variations speak for themselves :

1. *Ajmer, Coorg and Himachal Pradesh* :—The authority to sanction grants-in-aid vests in the Chief Commissioner, Ajmer.
2. *Bihar and Uttar Pradesh* :—The authority vests in local bodies.
3. *Bombay* :—The grants are sanctioned by the Administrative Officer.
4. *Madhya Pradesh and Orissa* :—The authority vests in the government.
5. *Madras* :—Grant-in-aid—Teaching grants (Recurring) are sanctioned by District Educational Officers. Building grants up to Rs. 500 are sanctioned by the Director and over Rs. 500 by the government to all schools. Equipment grants are sanctioned by the District Educational Officer up to a limit of Rs. 250 by the Divisional Inspector of Schools up to a limit of Rs. 500 and by the Director of Public Instruction when the amount exceeds Rs. 500.
6. *West Bengal* :—The authority vests in municipalities in urban areas. They pass orders after considering the reports of inspecting officers.

We feel that these variations have arisen more out of the general delegation of financial powers adopted in the State concerned rather than out of educational considerations. We see no reason to depart from the sound general principle that the power to grant recognition should be regarded as fundamental and that the other two powers, viz., the power to withdraw recognition and to sanction grants-in-aid should also vest in the same authority which grants recognition. *We recommend that this principle should, therefore, be generally adopted.*

(c) *Sharing the Cost of Financial Assistance to Private Schools* :—In States where the government deals direct with private primary schools, all expenditure on this account is borne by the government. This is the practice in Coorg, Himachal Pradesh (in three districts out of four), Madhya Pradesh, Madras and Orissa. In other areas, the grants-in-aid are paid by the local bodies in the first instance and they are later on reimbursed by the government in part or in full. The details are as follows :

1. *Ajmer* :—Grant-in-aid is paid to private schools through the agency of local bodies. The Government pay to the local bodies in respect of primary education a grant equal to their net deficit on the working of these schools, subject to a maximum of 90 per cent of the approved expenditure thereon, provided the contribution of each municipal committee in a year towards this education does not fall below $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of its total income from that year.
2. *Bihar and Uttar Pradesh* :—The grants-in-aid to private schools are paid by local bodies in the first instance. They then get a grant-in-aid from the State in accordance with the general principles already discussed.
3. *Bombay* :—Grants-in-aid to these schools in district school board areas are first paid by the district school boards from their P. E. Funds but their entire expenditure on this account is indirectly reimbursed to them by the government by way of government grants since their entire expenditure on primary education minus their receipts by way of local fund cess etc. is borne by the government. In the case of the authorised municipalities, however, the grant-in-aid paid by them to private primary schools is admitted for government grant at the rate of $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ of their approved expenditure as the case may be, the remaining expenditure on this account being borne by the municipalities themselves.
4. *Delhi* :—The grants-in-aid to private schools are paid by the local bodies in the first instance. The local bodies then submit a statement of total expenditure on grant-in-aid incurred on these schools to the Department of Education. The Department pays grants to the following local bodies in Delhi

State on the basis noted against each on the expenditure incurred by them for payment of grants to privately managed aided schools.

Serial No.	Local Body	Percentage of net approved expenditure
1	New Delhi Municipal Committee, New Delhi.	75%.
2	Notified Area Committee, Civil Station, Delhi.	100%.
3	Delhi Cantonment Board, Delhi Cantt.	Not yet sanctioned.
4	Municipal Committee, Delhi-Shahdara ..	66%.
5	Notified area Committee, Mehrauli ..	75%.
6	District Board, Delhi	100%.
7	Delhi Municipal Committee, Delhi ..	50% subject to a minimum of rupees eight per pupil in average attendance. The present basis of assessment is very complicated and is subject to various conditions though the rate is 50% but in reality it works out to about 25%. There is no separate basis for payment of grant to this local body on the expenditure incurred for payment of grants to aided primary schools on the recommendations of this Department.
8	Delhi Notified Area Committee, New Delhi.	Under consideration.

5. *Himachal Pradesh* :—In one district, grants-in-aid are paid by the local body concerned in the first instance. It is then reimbursed in full by the government.

6. *Punjab* :—The grants to private schools are first paid by the local bodies in whose jurisdiction they are situated. The municipalities are then reimbursed by the government to the extent of two-third of their expenditure on this account. The district boards are, however, paid grants on this account according to their grading. The grades of district boards in this State vary from 60 to 90 per cent.

7. *West Bengal* :—(i) In the rural areas, the District School Boards pay grants-in-aid to these schools. The Government pay grants to the district school boards on the basis of approved expenditure which includes salaries, etc. to the teachers, maintenance of primary schools and such other items as are included in the scheme framed by the boards and approved by the government. The entire deficit of the boards is met by the government.

(ii) In the urban or municipal areas, the inspecting officers of the education department of the State Government pay direct grants to the schools. The municipalities also pay grants to these schools from their own funds and also from funds given by the government for schemes framed and approved by them. .

From a careful study of these different practices, it appears that administrative practice varies on two general principles. In some cases, the expenditure incurred by local bodies on grants-in-aid to private schools is not differentiated from other expenditure and is paid from the State Treasury at the same general rate. In the other case, however, the expenditure on grants-in-aid to private schools is treated at a premium and given a grant-in-aid at a higher rate than for other items. Of these, *the former is the more desirable practice and we recommend that it should be generally accepted.*

In this connection, one complaint is very frequently made. The local bodies are often found to starve private schools. The first charge on the local budget for primary education is that of the schools conducted by the local body itself. Consequently, whenever a shortage of funds is felt, the budget provision for aided schools is often treated like the closing balance, appropriations are freely made, and the deficit is met by imposing arbitrary and emergency cuts in the grants due to private schools in accordance with the rules in force. It is from this point of view that the managers of private schools are often found to advocate the view that grants-in-aid to private schools should be paid direct by the government. We cannot accept this argument. Grants due to private schools are cut on grounds of financial stringency and the situation cannot be improved by any means other than the provision of adequate funds. If a local body cannot pay due grants to private schools, it is a case, *not* for the resumption of control by the government, but for overhauling its general financial position. If the suggestions made by us on the subject of the general grant-in-aid to local bodies are accepted, the financial situation will be fairly eased and occasions for imposing arbitrary cuts in grant-in-aid to private schools will rarely arise. We, therefore, have nothing more to suggest than that (a) local bodies should cultivate a sympathetic and liberal attitude to private enterprises and that (b) attempts should be made to improve the general financial position of local bodies. As a transitional measure, we have no objection to the expedient of easing the situation and removing the financial hardships that are likely to affect private enterprise by the government agreeing to bear the whole of the expenditure incurred by a local body on payments of grants-in-aid to private primary schools.

Before we close this discussion, it is necessary to clarify one important issue. If private enterprise is to thrive, it must be assured of internal autonomy and the control from without must be reduced as far as is practicable. The rules and regulations that will be framed by the governments or local bodies on the subject of private schools must bear this principle clearly in view. Secondly, it must be noted that the powers and duties given to town and village school committees in sections 4 and 5 earlier refer to the schools conducted by local bodies and *not* to those conducted by other agencies. In respect of these latter schools—whether aided or otherwise—these school committees will have very limited powers and responsibilities—the general principle underlying the position being that all financial responsibility will rest with the management (which will receive a grant-in-aid direct from the school

board) and that the town and village school committees will only exercise general powers that do not interfere with the autonomy of the school e.g., the enforcement of compulsory education, grant of free slates and books to indigent children, etc.

CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

We have now surveyed the whole field of the administration of primary education in so far as the relationship between local bodies and State Governments is concerned and this review may now be concluded by pointing out some special features of our suggestions and by summarising the recommendations we have made. As stated earlier, the fundamental principles that have guided us in making these recommendations are that the interests of primary education should be served best by harnessing local leadership, by augmenting the finances available, and by making it possible to exercise a better control over expenditure. Secondly, we have not followed any foreign model blindly but have borrowed practices from several countries to suit our own local conditions. The separation of inspection from administration is an English concept ; and so also is the administrative machinery proposed for corporations or larger municipalities. In semi-urban or rural areas, however, we found it better to adopt the French or New Zealand models. Thirdly, we have laid special emphasis on the delegation of large powers to village *panchayats*—an aspect of the problem which has been far too neglected in the past. Fourthly, taking India as a whole, we feel that our recommendations, if adopted, will lead to a great deal of decentralization of authority and a far closer association of local bodies with the administration of primary education than was ever achieved in the past. Lastly, we have also provided for regular periodical reviews of the problem so that the whole position is kept elastic and adjusted to changing conditions with as little delay as possible.

For convenience of reference, our recommendations are summarised below :

1. *Association of local bodies with the administration of primary education* :—It would be an advantage to associate local bodies with the administration of primary education in some form or other.

2. *Types of Local Bodies to be Associated* :—(a) All municipalities should be associated with the administration of primary schools in their areas and should be made to pay a specified contribution to support them. But varying degrees of independent authority over primary education should be vested in different municipalities on the broad basis of the extent of their contribution to the cost of primary education in their areas and their general administrative efficiency.

(b) In rural areas, a two-tier system of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education should be adopted everywhere. For single tier, residents of the rural area served by a primary school should be associated with its administration in some form or other. This may be done by giving *village panchayats* the right to supervise the schools in their area in the prescribed manner ; and where such *panchayats* do not exist, by establishing *ad hoc* school committee of prominent and interested local residents for the purpose. For the second tier, the district should ordinarily be adopted as the unit of administration.

9. *Creation of Educational Bodies*:—(a) In all village *panchayats* and smaller municipalities which have been given only a limited control over primary education, the local body should be required to elect a school committee and to delegate to it the task of supervising the local school or schools.

(b) In district local boards and in bigger municipalities which exercise wider powers over primary education, a school board should be constituted and charged with the responsibility of looking after its educational powers as well as an administrative officer having adequate authority to carry on the day-to-day administration of its primary schools.

(c) The State Governments should adopt the independent system of associating educational bodies with the corresponding local authorities generally ; but if that is not possible for some reason or the other, they should at least specify the composition and powers of the educational bodies. Ordinarily, an educational body of a dependent system should be constituted on the following pattern :

- (1) It should be of a fairly manageable size. In villages, it may consist of three to seven members ; in the smaller municipalities of five to nine members ; and in the bigger municipalities and district boards of 12 to 16 members.
- (2) Persons who are not members of the parent body should be eligible to be appointed to the educational bodies.
- (3) It is desirable to prescribe some educational qualifications for persons to be elected on or appointed to the educational bodies. The nature of these qualifications will have to be defined with reference to local conditions.
- (4) At the district level, provision should be made for the District Educational Inspector to be an ex-officio member of the educational body.
- (5) In villages, no detailed conditions regarding the composition of the educational bodies need be laid down. But in municipal areas and at the district level, representation on the educational bodies should be given to :—
 - (a) minorities, i.e., the people speaking any recognised language other than the language of the majority of the residents in the local area, provided that the number of such people is larger than a prescribed percentage of the population of the area as a whole ;
 - (b) women ;
 - (c) backward communities ; and
 - (d) experts in education.
- (6) The term of office of the educational bodies should be co-extensive with that of the parent body. It should not be appointed from year to year as is sometimes done.
- (7) As a rule, the reserved seats should not exceed one-third of the total number of members.
- (8) In so far as the powers of educational bodies are concerned, we feel that they should have complete internal autonomy except in matters of finance where the sanctions will have to

be obtained from the parent body. The relationship between the authorized Municipalities and their school boards in the State of Bombay is a good model to follow in this case.

- (9) Representation to primary teachers should be given on district school boards and on the school boards of the larger municipalities.

(d) The appointment of administrative officers should be obligatory under the statute in the case of all district school boards and the larger municipalities. They should be servants of the State Government ; but provision should also be made to delegate this authority to local bodies in certain cases, and detailed rules should be framed to prescribe their powers and duties in detail.

4. *Division of Authority on a Functional Basis* :—(a) Inspection should be regarded as a duty of the Government and should be carried out by government officers. All inspecting officers should be directly under the government and that the local bodies should have no control over them.

(b) State Governments should be solely responsible for maintaining or aiding the requisite number of training institutions for primary teachers.

(c) The authority to define curricula or courses of study at the primary level should continue to vest in the State Governments. But the local bodies should also be authorised, with the previous approval of the Director of Education, to introduce such variations in the prescribed curricula as they may deem necessary in view of local conditions.

(d) In every major municipality authorised to administer primary school within its area and in every district school board, the authority to recruit and control the teaching staff should vest in the Staff Selection Committee, the Administrative Officer, and the Appellate Tribunal constituted on lines similar to those adopted in Bombay. This procedure co-ordinates the official and non-official sides in an excellent manner and is likely to reduce to a minimum all those evils which are usually complained of in this respect.

(e) The service conditions of primary teachers should be determined by the local bodies concerned with the sanction of State Governments and as far as possible these should be uniform throughout the State.

(f) The primary teachers should continue to be treated as servants of local bodies as at present.

(g) The authority to decide the schedule and emoluments of the non-teaching staff should be vested in local bodies ; and the State Governments should give them fixed block grants on that account.

(h) Regarding textbooks, it is suggested that—

- (1) State Governments should prescribe, on the advice of official and non-official experts in the subject, the books to be used in primary schools ; and where more than one book happens to be prescribed in a subject, the local body should have the freedom to choose any one of the prescribed books for use in schools under its control.

(i) The State Governments should only fix the minimum number of days in a year on which the primary schools must be working. Subject to this limit the authority to fix holidays and vacations should vest entirely in the local body.

(j) The slow and cumbrous procedure for the construction of school-buildings and obtaining a State grant-in-aid therein should be thoroughly revised.

(k) Subject to the provision of an approved general plan, the authority to open, close or transfer schools should vest in local bodies.

(l) The legal provisions regarding the enforcement of compulsory education should be amended with a view to simplifying the prosecution of defaulting parents.

5. *Division of Authority on the Basis of the Local Body Associated* :—(a) *City Corporations* :—The general policy should be to devolve as large an authority upon city corporations as possible. Moreover, it would be preferable to adopt the two-tier system by creating ward committees with specific powers and duties.

(b) *Authorised Municipalities* :—The larger municipalities may be designated as “authorised municipalities”. They will differ from corporations in three ways. Firstly, the government will actually conduct inspections instead of merely reserving the right to do so. Secondly, the general control of the Government will be a little more detailed and thirdly, the administrative officers should preferably remain the servants of State Governments. The control over the teaching staff may be divided on the Bombay model described earlier, and even with regard to the other aspects of administration, provisions may be made on the lines of Sections 17 and 18 of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.

(c) *Non-authorised municipalities* :—The small municipalities which cannot be permitted to administer primary education in their areas will have to be treated at a still lower level. Their powers and duties over primary education may be broadly defined on the following lines :

- (i) They should have the right to elect one or more representatives on the District or Municipal School Board which controls the primary schools in their areas.
- (ii) They should have the right to supervise primary schools in their areas; and for that purpose, to elect a “Town School Committee” of five to nine persons.
- (iii) The authority of the Town School Committee over the teaching staff (which would be a part of a central cadre controlled by the District or Municipal School Board) should be limited to two main powers : (a) to grant casual leave to the heads of local schools ; (b) to be consulted before transferring local teachers (As a rule, a recommendation of the School Committee for the transfer of a teacher should be regarded as a mandate when it is supported by a majority of two-thirds of the total number of members of the Committee).
- (iv) The town school committees should have definite financial powers. Annually, a definite amount should be placed at their disposal which, along with such additions as they can

locally make, should be available to them for all expenditure on local primary schools (except the salaries and allowances of teachers which would be paid actually).

- (v) The powers and duties of the town school committees should include, among other things, the following :
- (a) the construction of school buildings ;
 - (b) responsibility for securing proper accommodation for all local primary schools, including the maintenance of owned buildings and the hire of others ;
 - (c) maintenance of school gardens, children's parks, and playgrounds ;
 - (d) provision of all equipment required by local schools ;
 - (e) responsibility for organizing all extra-curricular activities ;
 - (f) authority to distribute free slates, books, etc., to indigent children and to decide free studentships in cases where fees are charged ;
 - (g) responsibility for the enforcement of compulsory education including authority to pass attendance orders, to grant exemptions for reasonable excuses, and to launch prosecutions ;
 - (h) subject to rules made by the School Board, to lend the use of school buildings for other than educational purposes ;
 - (i) to award prizes to school students ;
 - (j) to decide local holidays subject to the limits laid down by the School Board ;
 - (k) to make recommendations to the school board regarding adjustment of school hours and vacations ;
 - (l) to carry out all such duties and exercise all such powers as may from time to time be delegated to it by the School Board ;
 - (m) to maintain the local school chest and to expend its proceeds in accordance with the rules ; and
 - (n) generally, to take all such measures as will help in expanding and improving primary education within the area in its charge.

(d) *Villages* :—The powers and duties of village school committees should be divided into two groups : the first group will include all those powers which a village school committee will have as soon as it is formed, and the second group will include all those powers which can be conferred on it by the District School Board in view of its efficiency. An indication of the nature of these two groups is given below :

(i) *Obligatory Powers and Duties* :

- (a) Responsibility for securing proper accommodation for all local primary schools, including the maintenance of owned buildings and the hire of others ;
- (b) to sanction casual leave to the head of the school ;
- (c) the maintenance of school gardens and playgrounds ;
- (d) provision of equipment for local schools ;

- (e) the organisation of extra-curricular activities ;
- (f) the distribution of free slates, books, etc., to indigent children and awarding free studentships where fees are charged ;
- (g) awarding prizes to school students ;
- (h) deciding local holidays subject to limit laid down by the School Board ;
- (i) to maintain the local chest and to expend its proceeds in accordance with the rules ;
- (j) to make recommendations to the School Board regarding local school hours and vacations ; and
- (k) generally to take all such measures as will help in expanding and improving primary education within its area.

(ii) *Additional Powers and Duties :*

- (a) the construction of school buildings ;
- (b) the maintenance of children's parks ;
- (c) responsibility for the enforcement of compulsory education including authority to pass attendance orders, to grant exemptions for reasonable excuses, and to launch prosecutions ;
- (d) subject to rules made by the School Board, to lend the use of school buildings for other than educational purposes ;
- (e) the right to be consulted before the transfer of local teachers ;
- (f) the right to demand, by a specified majority, the transfer of a local teacher ; and
- (g) exercising all such powers and performing all such duties as may be delegated to it by the district school board.

(e) *District School Boards* :—The powers and duties of these bodies should be similar to those of the municipal school boards with two main differences : firstly the administrative officers of district school boards should necessarily be government servants and secondly, there would be a greater indirect control by the government through its financial sanctions that will be more frequently required here than in the case of municipal school boards.

6. *Division of Authority—General* :—(a) The proposals of devolving authority in primary education are relative and depend upon the character of the local body. It is, therefore, quite possible to suggest that a much larger delegation of authority than what we have recommended above can be conveniently made if our local bodies are properly reconstituted and given larger resources. We accept this argument as valid and invite attention to an interesting experiment recently tried in Uttar Pradesh whereby the district boards were reconstituted and given larger powers of control over primary education. It is beyond the scope of this enquiry to suggest the manner in which our existing local bodies should be reconstituted and made richer. We would, however, welcome all experiments undertaken from this point of view and shall have no objection to these proposals being modified in the light of the reconstitution of the local bodies themselves.

(b) Future administrative reform should emphasize decentralization and should tend to build up local leadership and to strengthen local

bodies. It is, therefore, suggested that there should be thorough decennial reviews of the problem on an all-India basis and the question of devolving greater authority over primary education to local bodies should be examined thoroughly in the light of their increased efficiency.

(c) The Government should be authorised under a statute to withdraw any one or more powers conferred upon a local body if it is found that such powers are not being properly exercised ; similarly, it should also be open to the government to delegate any further powers to a local body if such delegation is justified on grounds of efficiency.

7. *Finance* :—(a) The Union Government should assign specific grants for universal and compulsory primary education in the States ; that such grants should be based on the principle of equalisation ; and that a preliminary investigation to ascertain the nature and extent of such grants should be undertaken without delay.

(b) A sum not less than sixty per cent of the total educational expenditure of the State should be spent on primary education. If such a standard is adopted in addition to the recommendation already made (i.e. a state should spend about twenty per cent of its revenue on education as a whole), the total resources available for primary education will be substantially increased.

(c) A specific budget provision should be made annually for the encouragement of research and experiments in primary and rural education.

(d) Every State should create a statutory state board of primary education to serve as an important connecting link between the non-official experts, the education departments, and the local bodies associated with the administration of primary education.

(e) Every State should carefully plan its grants-in-aid schemes after taking all past experience as well as the needs of the next five years into consideration and thereafter revise it thoroughly at the end of each quinquennium.

(f) State grants to local bodies on account of primary education should be based on a combination of the proportional grant (used to secure a broad equalisation as well as to provide for rapid expansion), a special grant for backward or necessitous areas, and specific purpose grants.

(g) Grants for all primary education whether voluntary or compulsory—should be statutory.

(h) Grants-in-aid for compulsory education should necessarily be at a higher rate than those for voluntary education.

(i) All local bodies should be required to survey their areas and prepare development schemes on a five-year basis at a time. The actual rate of grant-in-aid should then be fixed in view of all the circumstances of the case and in such a manner as to enable the local body to complete the programme as scheduled. Equalisation should be secured by defining a minimum foundation programme to be reached by all local bodies within a specified time and by giving priority and preferential treatment to the local bodies which for no fault of theirs fall below it so that they are enabled to reach the foundation programme as early as possible.

(j) The Municipal Acts should be amended so as to make the levy of an education cess obligatory on all municipalities. Where this is not possible, it would be in the interest of education to make it obligatory on municipalities to earmark a specified proportion of their total revenue for primary education. All funds thus earmarked for primary education should be entitled to receive grants-in-aid accordingly to rules.

(k) In village *panchayats* a portion of the total revenue should be earmarked for primary education.

(l) The French system of school chest should be universally adopted with such changes as may be necessary to make it suitable for local conditions.

(m) The Bengal practice of levying an educational cess on profits from mines and quarries as well as on trade, business, profession, and employment should be brought to the notice of other State Governments who should be requested to consider the feasibility of adopting it in their own areas.

(n) All local bodies should be required to levy a cess on land revenue. The law on the subject should prescribe both the minimum and maximum rates of levy and a definite portion of the proceeds should be earmarked for primary education.

(o) In States where the *zamindari* system is abolished, the income from village markets should be assigned to village *panchayats*, firstly for the improvement of the markets themselves and secondly for the improvement of primary education.

(p) The authorised municipalities should be graded according to their economic capacity and a sliding scale of grants-in-aid should be adopted in such a manner that the richer municipalities get a lower rate of grant-in-aid.

(q) No attempt should be made to "grade" the districts. A better alternative would be to give a general grant-in-aid to all district boards at the same rate, and to superimpose on it a necessitous areas grant which should be given only to backward or poorer districts and which should try to secure equalisation.

(r) Regarding financial powers of town and village school committees, the following recommendations are made :

(1) The fundamental reform is to restrict the scope of the authority of the district school boards to the control of teaching and administrative staff and to transfer responsibility in all other matters to these smaller committees on the model of the French Communes.

(2) In the town school committees, the following resources may be allocated :

(i) A portion of the local contribution for primary education (say one-third or one-fourth) assigned to the committee by the District School Board ;

(ii) all fees collected in local schools ;

- (iii) proceeds of the school-chest and the grant-in-aid received thereon ;
- (iv) fines realised in the local area for compulsory education ;
- (v) such other purely local receipts as may be assigned by the District School Board from time to time ; and
- (vi) a suitable non-recurring grant for building purposes and a recurring grant which should preferably be proportional to amounts raised locally under items (i) and (iii).

This fund should be exclusively at the disposal of the school committee to be spent at its discretion. It should be made responsible for all matters of expenditure (exclusive of teachers' salaries and allowances) connected with the local primary schools.

- (3) In the village school committees associated with *panchayats*, the position would be the same as above with one difference : instead of a definite portion of local contribution for education, the amount of total revenue earmarked for primary education should be placed fully at the disposal of the committee.
- (4) In the village school committees established in villages where *panchayats* do not exist, a grant-in-aid sanctioned by the District School Board (preferably on the basis of the number of pupils attending the local school) would take the place of the *panchayat* contribution. Other sources of revenue and responsibilities for expenditure should be the same.
- (5) One of the important duties of the District School Board would be to supervise the working of these school committees ; to see that they collect the amounts expected of them ; to watch the functioning of the school chest ; to sanction grants-in-aid to individual committees ; and to watch their expenditure.
- (s) Primary education funds should necessarily be maintained in all authorised municipalities and district school boards.
- (t) The authority to sanction budgets should vest in the State Governments. Certain powers regarding re-appropriations may be delegated to local bodies.

APPROVED SCHOOLS

- (a) Local bodies associated with the administration of primary education should ordinarily be in charge of all primary schools in their area, whether maintained under their direct control or managed by private agencies ;
- (b) that the authority to control and guide the private primary schools in their areas should generally vest in the local bodies themselves ; and
- (c) that the State Government should retain a few powers to themselves with a view to seeing that no hardships are caused to private enterprise ;

- (d) the authority to make rules, regulations and by-laws regarding private schools should vest concurrently in the State Governments, local bodies and the managements.

State Governments should legislate on broad matters of principle, viz., the procedure for grant and withdrawal of recognition, conditions of recognition, principles of grants-in-aid, maxima and minima of grants-in-aid, curricula, etc. Local bodies should fix up a few more details such as registers to be maintained, rates of grant-in-aid (which should be made to vary according to local conditions), school hours and vacations, admissions, withdrawals and transfer of pupils, etc. And the managements should make rules regarding service conditions of staff, discipline rules for students, provident fund for staff, and such other matters of internal administration. The rules made by local bodies should require the approval of the Director of Education and those made by the managements should require the approval of the school boards concerned.

- (e) Regarding grant or withdrawal of recognition to a private school, it is suggested :

(1) that the inspecting officers of the Department should be required to carry out, in the first instance, an investigation into every proposal for the grant or withdrawal of recognition to a private primary school ; (2) that the school board concerned should consider the report of such investigation and then decide whether recognition should or should not be granted, or should be withdrawn ; and (3) any party aggrieved by the order of the School Board should have the right to prefer an appeal to the Director of Education or to any other Specified Officer. These provisions will eliminate most chances of hardship to private enterprise and will, at the same time, secure decentralization of authority and a more unified control of primary education.

- (f) The authority to grant recognition should also be the authority to sanction grant-in-aid.

- (g) The expenditure incurred by a local body on grants-in-aid to private schools should be regarded as " approved expenditure " and be eligible for a State grant-in-aid at the usual rate.

- (h) The powers recommended to be conferred on town and village school committees relate only to schools conducted by local bodies. These should be modified in the case of private schools so as not to cause interference with their internal autonomy and financial responsibility.

NOTE OF DISSENT

BY

Chunilal D. Barfiwala

I presume that the Ministry of Education appointed the Hon'ble Shri A. G. Kher and myself on this Committee, composed nearly wholly of official educational heads of different States, in order that the most complicated and controversial problem of central-local relationship in the administration of primary education, may not be overlooked. Local bodies

are, therefore, really under the obligation of the Ministry for this anxiety, caution and courtesy.

The Hon. Shri A. G. Kher, in the very first meeting of the Committee, expressed his views at great length. He made it amply clear that he was against the policy of centralisation in the sphere of the administration of primary education. Unfortunately, however, Shri Kher could not attend the Delhi meeting, when recommendations were formulated on the basis of the opinions of the official educational experts. At this meeting, I was placed in the most unenviable position of a single non-official person pitted against an impenetrable phalanx of State officials. They were, one and all, for complete State control. They started with the question "whether local bodies should be associated in the administration of primary education?" and ended, obligingly, with the conclusion that local bodies must be associated in the administration "in some form or other". This concession was granted not because the merits of decentralisation weighed with them, nor because the democratic policy of administrative decentralisation appealed to them in the smallest degree but the concession was offered as a solatium for "adequate financial contribution" which they insisted that local bodies should make to meet a part of the colossal expenditure which this policy of centralisation would involve. My differences with these official experts are fundamental. I would start with just the opposite question—"How far the States should participate in the administration of primary education?"—because I consider that local bodies should be the principal organs of administration and the States should limit their sphere of action to supervision, guidance and general control. "The States should furnish information and guidance, by way of suggestions rather than prescriptions, without interfering with the freedom of experimentation by local bodies—which are so many 'laboratories' in search of best methods in conformity with the local conditions. To me the real problem is, 'what limitations should be put on the powers of intervention of the States' and not 'how to put the powers of the local bodies in a straight-jacket'". The fact that the States may have to contribute a major share or even the whole of the expenditure, does not alter my proposition. The theory that 'he who pays the piper calls for the tune' has no application to the administrative sphere. Here, the upper layer of government which is financially in a stronger position, should shoulder a greater burden—may be even the whole of it—and yet the local organs should undertake the administration of the service which they are best qualified to do. To me, local bodies are the best organs for the administration of primary education and the remedy for lack of finance lies in giving them sources of income necessary to finance the service, instead of reserving these sources to the State. To deprive them of these sources and to withhold administrative powers from them on the ground that they have poor finance is adding insult to injury (vide Kemble on Types of Administration).

I am not surprised that our educational experts hold this extreme view. They merely toe the line adopted by the members of their fraternity in countries where extreme centralisation is the order of the day. It is up to the political heads of Indian States to take an over-all view embracing the historical, economic, social, even geographical and above all the constitutional and democratic aspects of this problem. I venture to touch upon some of these aspects,

History very often repeats itself. Identical conditions produce identical results. It is, therefore, that the study of the history of educational administration is a good guide for formulating State policies. The first chapter of our report dealing with the history of the administration of primary education in our country and particularly the role played by local bodies furnishes us with very instructive lessons. The esteemed historian who drafted this chapter has drawn very important conclusions which are clearly established from the historical data—conclusions which it would be futile for any one to dispute. History reveals the following facts : “ that decentralisation had never been given a sincere trial ”. When some progress was made towards it, the clock was immediately set back. Local bodies made large financial contributions and stood by primary education in days of financial depression. Whatever state of primary education we have reached today is due mainly to the efforts of local bodies. Powers of local bodies were curtailed because of the interested agitation which challenged the wisdom of decentralisation. Local bodies were asked to shoulder duties without having been given financial resources to discharge them. This shortsightedness could have no result but in bringing inefficiency home ; inefficiency was born not out of any want of desire to step up but due to dire financial stringency ”

“ History gives the lie to the allegation that the cause of primary education has suffered by its association with local bodies ”. The historical review further demonstrates “ that in parts B and C States, primary education is backward even in areas where it has always been administered on a centralised basis ; that even in Part A States, it made but poor progress prior to 1921 when administration was practically centralised and the progress of education was not hindered (in fact it was accelerated in some cases) after its transfer to local control ”. These are a few lessons drawn by the historian whose authority no one of our Committee members would care to challenge.

A very able and careful research into the administrative history of England and the U.S.A. by an eminent authority reveals the following results :

“ Historical and comparative study enables one to speak in positive terms. Coincidence between local freedom and local good government has been remarkable in England and the U.S.A. Experience proves that local freedom is contributory to good government. When and where, local effort is the freest, it is also the most vigorous. That good government was the effect of freedom and not its cause is shown most strikingly in the U.S.A. where it has tended to follow freedom. That waves of centralisation preceded—not followed—weak local government is fairly clear from the more recent English History.” (Griffith—Modern Development of City Government).

Nearer home, we find that experiments in the sphere of administration of primary education have been carried on from time to time by the Government of the Uttar Pradesh, the biggest State in India. The latest phase—arrived at after these experiments—represents a policy wherein local bodies are expected to come into their own and contribute their best efforts in the cause of primary education, the government having decided to place primary education in full charge of local bodies. The State will

only have their inspecting staff to advise the boards. The State Education Department will have no direct control except that it will frame general rules for the guidance of the boards. Even the statutory school committees will be replaced by education committees as other advisory committees of municipalities and district boards.

It will be clear from the examination of the historical data that local bodies have acquitted themselves creditably in the discharge of their administrative duties so far as primary education is concerned. I expect that other States will follow the Uttar Pradesh lead or the circumstances of our country will ultimately make them do so.

The policy of decentralisation is the only policy that will work well in the special conditions prevailing in India. The vastness of our country, and the huge population that have got to be covered, and above all our abject poverty—all make the centralisation policy impossible to work. The nearest local authority must be able to control and decide its problems without everytime having to go to the Centre, and to maintain the day-to-day contact with the teachers, the parents and the local rate-payers. If the rate-payers and the local philanthropic people are to be encouraged to come forward to contribute their share in the furtherance of primary education either by personal participation in its working or by suitable donations the local authorities must be made responsible for the administration. This can only be done if adequate powers are vested in them. We must take into account, poor as we are, of the fact that heavy costs and delays are the inseparable concomitants of almost all forms of control. These heavy costs are generally obvious except to those theorists who will not closely examine them. Sometimes the costs cannot be calculated in terms of rupees and annas and are not, therefore, so very obvious, for example, costs in delays, exasperation and frustration. Many of the controls have a damping effect on the activities of local bodies instead of stimulating them.

Economic administration is possible only with decentralisation. Bureaucratic administration is at best always costly. Efficiency, which is supposed to result from bureaucratic rules, is ephemeral, superficial and never permanent and deep-rooted. "Detailed control is expensive in manpower, delays action, frays the nerves, is a shelter for those who dislike responsibility and ends by devitalising the controlled." (Chester). Even if the bureaucratic sort of efficiency were desirable, which I do not concede—our poverty compels us to be satisfied with a lesser degree of efficiency, with a minimum of the contents of education and even with some untidiness or education of a "middling standard". The U.S.A. is not faced with the problems of poverty. Yet it is a democratic country and puts up with lower standards in education and with untidiness—in order that democracy may survive.

Our Constitution is democratic. This democracy must be broad-based in order that dictatorship may not take its place. Democracy has got to be trained at all levels of government. In order to afford this training at the local level, we must create local enthusiasm which can only be done by making local bodies the principal organs of local administration. Democracy must mean avoidance of concentration of executive power in a large number of officials or a hierarchy of officials. Ministers, however,

well-intentioned, have got to delegate the bulk of their powers to officials—the greater control therefore means more concentration in the hands of officials. To avoid this resultant concentration of executive powers must be the object of any democratic constitution. “Even if it could be proved conclusively, and so far”, says an eminent recent authority, “I have seen no such proof that the police force could be more efficiently managed by the Home Office, it would still be a mistake, having in mind the larger issues at stake, to make the transfer of powers from local bodies to the State”. “I would also say”, the author adds, “the same about education” (Chester, Central and Local Government).

Local governments are a major element in the democratic way of life which the Indian Constitution aims at. Assuming centralisation may conduce to administrative efficiency of some sort—though this assumption is not always correct—a system of government should not be judged merely as a machine or solely in terms of administrative efficiency but a democratic account must be taken of the contribution which a system makes to the citizens’ way of life. Democracy postulates active and interested citizenship.

It is popular amongst experts to talk of local governments as inefficient, corrupt, party-ridden and full of all condemnable qualities. They forget that it is quite absurd to assume that where local bodies are of this kind, the opposite can ever be true of provincial and central governments. All the levels of government reflect the same pattern of public opinion and morality. All the vices heaped at the doors of local bodies can be discerned sometimes even in greater degrees in the upper levels of government.

Weighty reasons in support of this policy of vesting powers in local bodies have been reproduced in paragraph No. 2 of Chapter III from the report recently published of the International Conference of Local Bodies, 1951, which examined at greater length the problem of local authorities and education. I need not reproduce the paragraph here but would like to draw the serious attention of all concerned with the problems in our country, to these most weighty opinions.

As regards finance, I should like to say a few words on the question of central grant. It appears to be an easy task to ask that Union Government should make suitable grants to the States towards expenditure on primary education. This question, however, raises important issues which are not so easy of solution. No satisfactory objective formulae for the Central grant are available. The “equalisation grant” is a high sounding phrase but when it comes to a question of actual distribution, all sorts of difficulties arise. Even in the U.S.A. where more or less reliable data are available, the distribution of these grants are not satisfactory.

Central grants would give rise to the question of union control and all that it means. This control being one very remote from the people would tend to assume “impersonal, mechanical, dictatorial pattern and would establish a framework in which regimentation can grow”.

The distribution of central grant would give rise to provincial rivalries—each state will try to get as much as it can. It would be desirable, therefore, that instead of grants, there is a readjustment of tax structure,

so that each government collects to a greater extent the revenue necessary to maintain the governmental service it performs.

If this readjustment of tax structure is not possible, specific services, e.g. agricultural education, technical education or even all college education or education of the blind or delinquent children, etc. should be taken up wholly by the Union Government.

Whatever the shape of such Central assistance it should leave the control of educational processes to the States and local bodies. Well organised central advisory and information service and leadership concerning education are any day welcome.

The next question is the financial responsibility of the State Government and local bodies. Here also I would recommend an examination of the tax-structure and allocate sufficient revenue-resources to local bodies and make them less dependent on State grants. Pending such reform in taxation-structure I would recommend that the State should pay for the salaries and allowances of teachers, $\frac{2}{3}$ of the salaries and allowances of non-teaching staff ; $\frac{3}{4}$ of expenditure on buildings and $\frac{1}{4}$ of the capital expenditure by way of a long-term loan with the minimum rate of interest. The balance should be paid from the general funds of the local bodies. In no case State grant should be below 50 per cent. If the local funds cannot be raised to meet this balance of expenditure on account of the low taxable capacity of an area, further State grant-in-aid should follow.

I am against earmarking for primary education, of a percentage of expenditure of the State or of income of a local body. This earmarking is wrong on principles of finance and is impossible of observance in practice. Such earmarking, moreover, encourages official experts of every other department, e.g., Public Health, Public Works, etc. to demand that similar percentages should be earmarked for their departments as well. They would point out that the health and protection of life and economic development of the country are as important as education, their requirements are human and educational needs are more of a cultural nature and that, therefore, theirs is a better case for such earmarking. Wherever such bad methods of finance were attempted e.g. in Madras, it was found inconvenient and impossible to adhere to in actual working. Shri N. C. Sarkar in his able note of dissent to the report of the Ways and Means Committee on the Development of Education has the following very cogent remarks to offer on this issue :

“ Earmarking of revenue, as it is well known, is bad finance ; for, by introducing rigidity in a field where elasticity is essential, it interferes with the periodical allocation of resources to the best advantage on the principle of equi-marginal return.”

“ On the other hand, such fixed percentage once earmarked for expenditure on education may quite naturally encourage other departments to insist on similar earmarking for their benefit and it may not be easy to resist such demand. At a time when the demands for an all-round development of the province cover a wide field and are sometimes dependent on uncertain factors fixed percentages would tend to make the structure of the provincial public finance rigid, hide-bound and shorn of its elasticity. This cannot but hinder progress.”

I am also opposed to the levy of a Special Education Cess for almost similar reasons. The Committee on Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development which was presided over by the Hon'ble Shri B. G. Kher and to which I have referred above, have the following remarks on this issue :

“ The Committee has carefully considered the proposal to raise money by an Education Cess, but past experience shows that the Cess has not produced sufficient revenue for the purpose. Apart from this consideration, the Committee was of opinion that the money for financing educational schemes should come from general revenues and the proceeds of any particular tax should not be earmarked for education.”

I oppose the creation of special statutory educational bodies. I would be satisfied by the appointment of education committees of local bodies on the same lines as other committees. In this respect, I support the policy recently laid down by the U.P. Government, which makes these education committees merely advisory bodies. Here, I cannot resist the temptation of quoting the following relevant passages from an eminent authority.

“ A board of education is likely to be much more sympathetic than a council when additional money is requested for new school buildings or increases in teachers' salaries. The same argument could be used, however, to justify fiscally independent boards of police, fire, health, water, poor relief, and a dozen others. The men who are responsible for but a single service naturally appreciate the needs of that service far better than those whose task is to guide all the governmental policies of a city. But the problem in city government, as in all governments, is not merely to get as large an appropriation as possible for each department. It is also to keep the total tax burden within reasonable limits, and that can be accomplished only by balancing the demands of the several administrative departments against one another, allotting to each department its fair share of the city's total income. The board of education should be permitted to state how much the school system needs, but the council should have authority to decide how much it actually gets. For no board of education, or other authority interested primarily in schools, can fairly weigh education against other public functions and determine their relative importance.”

“ The schoolmen take the untenable position that education should be put in a class by itself. They contend that it should receive as large appropriations as its own representatives think desirable, while appropriations to all other services are adjusted to the city's budget plan. The general acceptance of this theory has been to increase the cost of education out of all proportion to the cost of other essential municipal activities.”

“ Students of governments must recognise the equally urgent needs of other municipal functions and also the importance preventing an excessive tax rate.”

“ In all governments, in the nation, the state, the city, the problem is to reconcile a hundred pressing needs so that the total of the appropriations shall not be excessive. This can best be done by somebody able to consider them all and their relative importance.”

In view of my above-stated views, I cannot conceive of an 'independent' system of schools which my colleagues would prefer.

Before I conclude, I should like to add a few remarks on two or three further recommendations of the Committee.

1. Representation to school teachers in the school committees under whom they are serving is likely to create difficulties in administration. Transfers of teachers representing this group, in the Education Committee, will give rise to endless difficulties. Any disciplinary action against such a teacher will be almost impossible. He will be only docile and submissive to the administrative officers when working in the Committee.

2. Administrative Officers should be servants of local bodies and not of the government. In order to give him protection, it may be provided that his removal or punishment should be subject to 2/3rd majority vote.

3. Regarding Textbooks :

Where the report says "*if more than one textbook happens to be prescribed*", I had moved an amendment to the effect that three books or at least more than one book should be prescribed in order that local bodies may have some choice left to them of selecting any one of them. Votes were taken and I was the only person voting for my amendment—experts insisting that more than one book need not be prescribed. This shows how far the idea of centralisation has gone deep with the officials. In this connection I would like to quote the following weighty opinion of the Textbook Revising Committee of the Central Advisory Board. "As the purpose of a textbook is that of a guide and of an auxiliary, the Committee consider it desirable to ensure a certain measure of choice, for this reason the number of textbooks in each class for each subject should not be less than two or more than six."

4. State-board of primary education should consist solely of non-officials so that the function of advising the government may be performed with a sense of freedom. At present, I find from experience that the officials who are nominated are found generally to be lacking in freedom to express their views which may be different from those of the government. I would also like to stipulate that officials—if they are to be appointed on the Board—should have no right of voting.

5. Sanction of school board budgets by the Government has been found to be most irksome and does not serve any purpose except that of causing unnecessary hardship. The harmful results of this procedure are mentioned in the appendices relating to approved expenditure and budgets. Everyone accustomed to this practice, e.g. in the State of Bombay, knows the inconvenience caused by this procedure.

Lastly, I am firmly of the opinion that the character of our educational administration must be determined in accordance with the political theory of our State. We are not a totalitarian State, which maintains a highly

centralised bureaucratic system of administration which in education controls the whole process and seeks to secure uniformity and mould all to a pattern. But we are a democratic State, and must recognise the rights of participating local units and delegate to them a large measure of self-determination and responsibility reserving to the State advice, guidance and assistance. It is in the interest of these States that local leadership - even in the administration of primary education be developed. This is certainly not to make "a guineapig of educational administration" as the majority report contemptuously puts it.



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APPENDIX A

*The Role of Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education
A Comparative Study*

The role of local bodies in the administration of primary education varies from country to country, the causes for the variation being sociological, historical or political. A study of this changing role in a few typical countries, therefore can throw a very useful light on the factors that determine the manner and extent of decentralization in the administration of primary education, the different problems, that arise out of such decentralization and the methods that are being adopted to solve them satisfactorily. Needless to say, such a study can give valuable guidance in evolving solutions to the problems that face us in this field of Indian education.

2. *Australia*.—Australia holds a unique position in this respect because the Australian local bodies never had anything to do with the administration of primary education and a centralized pattern of administration was evolved right from the start. This development was due to several factors. In the first place, about half the population of the Australian colonies is concentrated in the capital cities. Consequently, the Australians, naturally preferred a centralised form to a decentralised one. This tendency was further stressed by the fact that Australia was a new continent being brought under cultivation, so that the pioneer colonists were required to stay in isolation in large tracts of country. It would have been impossible for them to adopt a decentralised form of government and to provide schools, roads and such other amenities of civic life on their own responsibility. They, therefore, depended upon a strong central government to provide them with these essential facilities for colonisation. Subsequent history has shown that this dependence, although it thwarted local enterprise and led to centralisation, had excellent beneficial results in practice. Still another reason for centralisation was the absence of an efficient and extensive system of private schools. As is well known, the existence of private enterprise tends to prevent centralisation. In England, for instance, it was the large number of private schools conducted by the Church that opposed the direct intervention of the State in educational matters and successfully led to the creation of a decentralised system of administration. But in a new colony like Australia, private enterprise was neither so strong nor so extensive as in England and its very weakness led to the adoption of a centralised pattern. By common consent of historians, these are the most important reasons that helped the creation of a centralised system of educational administration in Australia. Some other reasons such as the penal character of the early Australian settlements have been mentioned in this connection ; but their effect is still controversial and hence need not be considered here.¹

The historians of Australian education are unanimous in the view that the centralised administration of Australia did what local bodies would never have been able to do. It provided good schools even in sparsely populated areas and maintained uniform and high standards in thickly populated towns as well as in places where the density of population was less than one per mile. Even so determined a champion of the decentralised form of administration as Kandel

¹For details attention is invited to the following sources :—

Portus, G. V.—*Free, Compulsory and Secular—A Critical Estimate of Australian Education.*

Cunningham, K. S.—*A Critical Account of Australian Education* (Published in the Year Book of Education, Evans Bros., London).

Kandel, I. L.—*Types of Administration*, Chapter V.

pays a high tribute to the achievements of the centralised form of administration in Australia.

He says :

"It was only through centralization, therefore, that the two countries i.e. Australia and Newzealand could achieve what they did—the provisions of educational facilities which reach out to the remotest hamlets and homes of a widely and sparsely scattered population. It was through this system that schools have been provided wherever needed under teachers who have the same preparation, enjoy the same standards of remuneration, are protected in their tenure because they are civil servants responsible not to the local but to the central authorities, and through a carefully protected system of promotions have ahead of them the opportunity of rising to the highest positions in the educational services. More recently the opportunities for elementary education have begun to be supplemented by an increasing provision of post-primary education of various types. Further, a uniform quality of educational standards is maintained through a system of State inspection and examinations, although the latter are beginning to be eliminated at the elementary level. And, finally, where an adequate number of pupils cannot be assembled to form a school, a system of provisional schools and of education by correspondence has been developed, the latter unique both in organization and in the quality and range of its activities. Of these achievements the two countries may justly be proud."

But along with these advantages, the centralised administration of primary education has brought several disadvantages also in its train. Among these may be mentioned (1) the absence of public interest and of enlightened public opinion in the field of primary education ; (2) tendency to evolve uniform procedures and standards which curtail the freedom to experiment ; (3) the dumping of educational policies from above instead of evolving them as a cooperative enterprise from below ; (4) the worship of the principle of seniority often resulting in suppression of younger talent ; (5) delays and red-tape ; (6) slow introduction of new ideas ; (7) extreme liability to the financial effects of a depression on account of its single-source finance ; and (8) the tyranny of rules. Consequently there is, at present, a distinct trend of thought to introduce some measure of decentralization in the system without forfeiting the advantages which centralization has brought.

3. *U. S. A.*—The United States of America present a picture diametrically opposed to that of Australia. Here, the local bodies have the supreme voice in the administration of primary education and meet the largest part of its expenditure. In fact, the Americans claim that it is this important role of local bodies that make the administration of primary education decentralized and democratic to an extent that is not generally attained elsewhere.

(1) *Origin of Local Control.*—Paradoxically enough, the local bodies in the U. S. A. have no constitutional right to control primary education. "The theory of political organisation", observe Russell and Judd, "on which the Government of the United States rests recognises the State as the sovereign governmental entity. All local governmental organisations exist only by the sanction of the State and the local community has no inherent right to any control over

^a I. L. Kandel,—Types of Administration, pp. 89-90.

education, except as the State delegates such control over it".³ The local control in American Education, therefore, is not legal in origin and its beginning have to be sought in the socio-economic conditions of the early colonial life of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In these days, the American settlers were compelled to form themselves into closely united small communities for the sake of their very existence and the absence of a central authority made them assume direct responsibility for the provision of schools for the education of their children just as they were required to organise other governmental activities of immediate importance. "The American advance into the exterior", writes Professor Portus, "was far more orderly. It had to consolidate each position it won. It had to clear the forests, bring up its vanguard of women and children, and establish permanent settlements before it could extend its frontier one stage further to the West. This meant a stationary population, rooted to the soil in certain selected spots, slowly winning more cultivable land from the forest but forced, by fear of outside attack, to live closely together in defensible positions, with a central loopholed block-house as a nucleus. Here were all the essentials that have in the course of human history, produced that type of social organisation called a village community. These American village communities were also frontier posts in the backwoods. What is more natural is that these isolated and self-supporting groups should have taken charge of communal activities such as defence, justice and education."⁴

The local control of education which thus began in the early pioneer stage soon became a tradition deeply rooted in the culture of the people. It had, however, to pass through several different stages until it reached its present position. "During the colonial period", writes De Young, "every citizen took direct part in managing school affairs. Every item of school business was brought before the town meeting. As towns became larger, more and more of the business of the town meeting was entrusted to officials known as selectmen. Providing proper schools was one of the duties frequently entrusted to these officials. Thus the selectmen became, in reality, the first lay representatives of the community charged with the management of the schools. As towns continued to grow, the selectmen were unable to attend to school business, town business, and church business. Special school committees were then created and with that practice the school board proper came into existence. Colonial practice formed the background for early state laws and by a process of gradual and irregular development, the office of school board members spread to all parts of the nation."⁵

(2) *Number of Local Organizations in Control of Primary Education*—The population of the U.S.A. exceeds 13 crores and there are more than 1,60,000 independent units of government entrusted with the performance of some service or the other. They vary in size from the Federal Government on the one hand to a small district on the other. To correspond with them there are about 1,20,000 school districts in the U.S.A., which works out at one school district for about 1,100 persons on an average. But there is hardly any uniformity of size between the different school districts. On the one hand, the whole of the city of New York which has more than ten lakhs of pupils and

³Russell and Judd.—*The American Educational System*, p. 122. It must be noted that the constitutional position in India is very similar. According to the seventh Schedule to the Indian Constitution, Education is vested primarily in the State Governments (subject to a few items reserved for the Federal Government) and the local bodies have not been assigned any share at all. The obvious implication is that the local bodies cannot demand any share in educational administration as a matter of legal right, and that it is for each individual State to decide whether any of its educational authority shall be delegated to local bodies or not and if so, what would be the extent and manner of such delegation.

⁴Portus, G. V.—*Free Compulsory and Secular—A Critical Estimate of Australian Education*, pp. 13 to 15.

⁵De Young, C. A.—*Introduction to American Public Education*, p. 109.

40,000 teachers is regarded as one school district; on the other, there are school districts which have only one teacher and one pupil. On the whole, however, a very large number of the school districts have just one school building and one teacher so that the number of board members is much larger than the number of teachers.

This small size of the average school district in the U.S.A. arose historically. In the early colonial days, the population was very sparse and the transportation of children to a central school was impossible because neither the means of communication nor the automobiles were then in existence. It was, therefore, necessary to have small single-teacher schools spread out all over the country in order that the few children in the neighbourhood could conveniently attend them. What thus arose out of a historical and social necessity soon became a tradition, and today it is very difficult to abolish the small school districts although their uneconomic and inconvenient character is being increasingly realised.

(3) *Types of Local Organisations.*—The local bodies which control education in the U.S.A. are generally organised on one or the other of four types: (i) in Delaware, the whole area of the State is regarded as one unit; (ii) the county is taken as a unit for some or all school functions in 38 states, revenue for schools is raised on a county basis in 33 states, and in 12 states, the administration of education is organised strongly on the county basis; (iii) in the New England states (which are nine in number) the town-ship or the town is the unit for school administration; (iv) in all the remaining 26 states, school administration is organised on a "district" basis. Each school district is generally a very small geographical area with a single school and there are more than 1,10,000 districts in total.

The constitution of the school boards naturally varies according to the type of the local organisation. In the county type, there is a County Board of Education at the top and below it, a County Superintendent of Schools who is the official head of the school administration. In a majority of states this is a political job and the County Superintendent is elected ordinarily for a period of two years at a time. Under him, there is an adequate subordinate staff for the supervision and administration of schools in the county. In the *township type*, there is an elected Township Board of Education of three or more members and the Township School Principal or Superintendent fulfils the duties belonging to the local Superintendent of Schools. In the *town-type*, there is a Town School Committee elected by the people and a Town Superintendent of Education who is appointed either separately for one town or jointly for more than one contiguous towns. In the *district type*, there is generally a Board of Education at the top and a Superintendent of Schools when the district is big enough. But in the large majority of school districts, the school administration is carried on by a Board of three members and the teacher.

(4) *Finance.*—A very large part of the expenditure of the school is paid for from local sources. Taking education as a whole, the share of expenditure borne by different governmental units is shown below :^a

Source	Percentage
Federal	1.2
State	29.5
County	6.5
Local	62.8
	<u>100.0</u>

^aDe Young, C. A.—op. cit., p. 397. .

If the cost of primary education alone is separately considered, the percentage of the total expenditure borne from local sources would become still greater. Under the American system, therefore, a very large part of the cost of primary education falls on local bodies. They are able to bear this burden partly because of the wealth of the people and partly because important sources of revenue have also been vested in them.

(5) *Powers and Duties* : Just as the local bodies pay for the largest part of the expenditure on primary education, they also exercise a large amount of control. They appoint teachers and control their services ; they fix their own scales of pay ; they decide on curricula and books ; they are in charge of the entire school plant, and are responsible for its construction as well as its maintenance. It is true that they have to follow certain general principles laid down by higher authorities in such matters as the minimum qualification of teachers, the minimum salaries payable, etc. But, on the whole, their authority is large, even in theory ; and, in practice, the local sentiment is so strong that all legal authority of the school board is fully exercised and even the smallest encroachment upon it is actively resented.

(6) *Trends of Reorganisation* : American educationists are not happy with all the features of local control in education and in recent years, the defects of the existing system are being increasingly pointed out. The commonest point of attack is the small school district with a single school building and, more often than not, a single school teacher. Under such an organisation the efficiency of education suffers because a large majority of children have to learn in schools where one teacher is simultaneously in charge of seven to eight classes. Secondly, it is not possible to provide efficient supervision over the work of teachers. Thirdly, the salaries of teachers vary from district to district and the security of tenure is also precarious because, if the teacher falls out with the board members, her only alternative is to resign. Fourthly, the system becomes considerably uneconomic because a single central school (with adequate provision for transportation of pupils where necessary) is cheaper than a number of single-teacher schools scattered all over the area ; and lastly, the financial burden for school support becomes very unequal from one area to another. This is the most serious drawback. In some school districts, the people are poorer but have a larger number of children to be educated than in others with the result that some communities have to make far larger sacrifices than others, as Russell and Judd write :

“ Grave difficulties in supporting schools of satisfactory grade arise out of the variations in economic ability among the local units, which now provide more than two-thirds of all the support for public education. The tax on which local units depend for the revenues needed to conduct schools is the general property tax. The value of property available for taxation in the local units may have no relation to the number of children to be educated or to the cost of educating them. Studies in many states have shown that the amount of taxable wealth per school child is scores or even hundreds of times greater in the most able communities than in the least able. In most states many of the local school units with the lowest economic ability would be unable to support even a minimum programme of schools if they were to devote to that purpose all the taxes that could possibly be raised, neglecting completely the support of other governmental functions.

“ Furthermore, the units in which the wealth per child is lowest typically have an unusually large number of children in their population. Such areas are also those from which migration of population is most common. The richer communities do not have an average

birth-rate sufficient for the maintenance of their population, and hence migration is constantly taking place from the areas of lower economic ability into the more favoured areas. Thus, unless some arrangement is made for the maintenance of school services in the least favoured areas by funds supplied from other than local sources, the wealthier communities will constantly suffer from an influx of poorly educated people."⁷

In order to remedy these evils which mainly arise out of the small size of the local authorities, the proposal most commonly put forward is to adopt bigger units of local administration through a process of consolidation and elimination. The Regent's Inquiry in New York recommended that every school district should be big enough to satisfy the following conditions :

1. Contain enough children so that a well balanced elementary and high school programme can be maintained economically.
2. Be so planned geographically that schools can be conveniently located and transportation, where necessary, easily arranged without requiring long routes.
3. Contain sufficient assessed valuation and tax-paying capacity to carry the greater part of the school programme.
4. Coincide as far as possible with the natural community boundaries and, where possible, with local governmental units so that cooperative services may be arranged, particularly in connection with health, traffic control, planning, recreation, the joint use of Plant, and proper management of the public debt.
5. Keep the schools and the government of the schools close to the people so that the citizens, generally including the parents and the taxpayers, may know what their schools are doing, may have an effective voice in the school programme and may participate in the community use of the school building.⁸

But in spite of the strong justification for this reform, it is being very greatly opposed by old traditions. The local people are unwilling to lose their independent existence as controlling authorities in education and the movement for the consolidation of school districts is making but very slow progress. In other words, the main defect of local control in the U.S.A. is that it is tied down for historical reasons, to a small unit of administration and cannot adopt the larger units of administration which have been made necessary and possible by the changing economic and social conditions during the last hundred years or so.

4. *England* : In England, the association of local bodies with the administration of primary education arose partly out of cultural and partly out of historical considerations. In the first place, the English are temperamentally opposed to centralisation and prefer to emphasize voluntary effort and local leadership. Secondly, local bodies in England are hoary institutions which even preceded the national State so that the British public was quite familiar with the idea of managing important services through local agencies. These factors erected a bias in favour of local administration which was further strengthened by the teachings of men like Godwin who believed that direct State control of

⁷Russell and Judd : op. cit., pp. 177-78.

⁸Gulick, L. H.—Education for American Life (Regents' Inquiry pp. 89-90).

education would be extremely harmful⁹ and the final result was the creation of a favourable background for the association of local bodies with the administration of primary education.

In spite of these favourable considerations, no local bodies to control primary education were created in England as late as 1870 when the first Elementary Education Act was passed. Under its provisions, every local area had to be surveyed from the point of view of elementary education. If no deficiency of provision was discovered, it was to be left alone. On the other hand, if a deficiency was discovered, the voluntary agencies were to be set a time limit to making it good and if they failed to do so, a school board elected *ad hoc* was to be constituted for the area and was to be empowered to levy rates to establish schools under its direct control, to supplement the work of private enterprise and to enforce compulsory attendance. Under the Elementary Education Act of 1876, School Attendance Committees were established for the areas for which school boards were not constituted. This "era of *ad hoc* bodies" came to an end in 1902 when education was made a municipal service. Under the Balfour Act of that year, the local education authorities (or briefly L. E. A.s) were given powers to provide and enforce compulsory elementary education. The bigger L. E. A.s were given the right to manage elementary as well as secondary and technical education (these were known as Part II L. E. A.s because they were governed by Part II of the Act) and the smaller L. E. A.s were allowed to manage elementary education only and, for a similar reason, were known as Part III L. E. A.s. In 1944, a still further step was taken; the distinction between Part II and Part III L.E.A.s was done away; the number of L.E.A.s was reduced, and all local education authorities were entrusted with functions covering all aspects of education. In short, the cooperation of local bodies and the State moved smoothly from one stage of development to another. As Selby Bigge observes, "The history of the educational system reflects the progress as between central and local agencies from patronage to joint responsibility, from contract to status, from dole to partnership, from distribution of particular grants to a system of joint finance."¹⁰

(1) *Size of the Area under a Local Education Authority*: In 1870, the size of the area of each local authority in charge of education was very small. Even in 1903, there were as many as 2564 school boards and 787 school attendance committees in England and Wales, the total population of which was then about 325 lakhs. This gives an average of one local authority for a population of about 10,000. This small unit was very helpful in making compulsory education effective, in creating local enthusiasm or in exploiting local initiative and knowledge. But as time passed, the age-period of compulsion was lengthened and the scope of education to be imparted became broader and richer. The small units of the earlier days became, therefore, inconvenient and hence, in 1902, the number of L. E. A.s was drastically reduced to 333. The number went on gradually declining and in 1944, it stood at 315. The Education Act of 1944, reduced the number still further to 150 only. At the same time, it has provided for the creation of District Committees (for each district with a population of about 60,000) which would be delegated with certain educational functions. As the White Paper on Educational Reconstruction observes :

"118. As indicated in paragraph 114, any scheme for the constitution of Local Education Authorities must be such as to preserve and stimulate local interests in educational affairs. It is, therefore, proposed to require county authorities to prepare schemes for the constitution and functions of district

⁹C. Birchenough : History of Elementary Education in England and Wales.

¹⁰The Board of Education, p.112.

education committees. For this purpose the county will be divided into areas, each area consisting of one or more county districts provided that any county district with a minimum total population of 60,000 or a minimum elementary school population of 7,000 children, will have the right to have a separate district committee for its area. District committees will be entrusted with the general duty of keeping the educational needs of the area under review and making recommendations to the county education committee, and with such other functions as may be delegated to them by the county education committee. Some county authorities, realising the advantages of relying on local knowledge and interest, already delegate many functions to local committees both in respect of elementary and higher education. Under the arrangements proposed it will be open to district committees to make representations to the Board if they are dissatisfied with the extent of the delegation to them proposed by the county education committee. This system of district committees will not be confined to the areas of the present Part III Authorities, but will cover the whole of the administrative area of the county. Local interest in educational affairs will, therefore, not only be maintained in the areas where it exists at present, but will be stimulated and extended over a much wider field."¹¹.

These British developments may be advantageously compared with those in the U.S.A. In both the nations, local control of education began with a large number of small local authorities. But as time passed and larger units of administration became essential, England went on adopting bigger and bigger units of administration without, at the same time, forfeiting the advantages of decentralisation and without losing the assistance derived from local enthusiasm, interest and knowledge. In the U. S. A., on the other hand, this adjustment became difficult and is going on very slowly with consequences that are none too happy. The happier adjustment in England is due partly to the temperament of the British people which can evolve good solutions with ease and partly to the urban character of the population. In the U.S.A. not only have the people resisted the attempt to abolish the smaller units, but the sparsity and rural character of the population have created difficult problems of building construction and transport over distances.

(2) *Division of Functions* : In England, the division of authority between Government and the L. E. A.s has been thorough and complete. Broadly speaking, the administration of education is done by the L. E. A.s while inspection is done by His Majesty's Inspectors who work under the Board of Education. The L. E. A.s also have their own inspecting staff ; but their duties do not overlap with those of His Majesty's Inspectors. The one great thing about England is that there has never been a quarrel over the division of authority between Government and the L. E. A.s and the legal position described above has remained essentially the same since 1870 to the present day. This feature forms a pleasant contrast to the situation in India where the transfer and retransfer of authority between the Government and local bodies looks almost like a game of battledore and shuttlecock.

(3) *Grants-in-Aid* : The history of grants-in-aid from Government to L. E. A.s in England makes interesting reading. In 1870, grants were mainly awarded on the basis of results. The system involved the scrutiny and evaluation of the work of each child in detail in each of the important subjects. This system led to several evils, the chief among which was the adoption of mechanical methods of teaching. It was, therefore, abandoned and a new system of calculating the grants-in-aid with a school as a unit was adopted. But even this

system had its disadvantages. In the first place, there were as many as 2,568 school boards and 14,238 bodies of managers of voluntary schools, each of whom had to be dealt with separately. Secondly, there were not one but several different bases on which grants-in-aid were calculated. These considerations made the system of grant-in-aid extremely complicated. "The complications of calculation due to a variety of grants", wrote Dr. Corlett, "were fast becoming excrescences in any grant system and a simplified system was desirable from an administrative point of view. Each Local Authority was receiving a stream of separate credits on the Paymaster-General from the Board for small amounts due in respect of each particular grant for particular schools. As a case in point, Liverpool in 1911 received its annual subvention in the form of about 125 separate claims on the Paymaster-General, two-thirds being in respect of Elementary Education."¹² It was, therefore, decided in 1917 to adopt a still simpler form of grant-in-aid. Under the new rules a single grant was instituted for each local authority on the following principles :—

- (1) The *Substantive grant* was calculated at 36s. per child in average attendance *plus* 60 per cent of teachers' salaries, *plus* 50 per cent of expenditure on special services (school medical service, free meals, etc) *plus* 20 per cent of expenditure on other items, *minus* the produce of 7d. rate.
- (2) The *maximum limit of grant* was either (a) two-third of the net expenditure or (b) the excess of net expenditure over the produce of a 12d. rate *plus* the grant under the Agricultural Rates Act.
- (3) The *minimum grant* was fixed at 50 per cent.

This improved the situation to a great extent. In the course of the following few years, both the maximum and minimum limits were abandoned and a grant of about 50 per cent of the total approved expenditure was given to each local authority. The increase of cost due to the Second World War necessitated a still further change in this basis and the following system has been introduced by the Education Act of 1944 :—

"12. The revised grant system will result in payment of the three types of grant :

- (i) A *main grant* to each authority based on the percentage which the total grants for education for that authority's area bore to the corresponding expenditure on education in 1938-39. This percentage will be increased by stages to a total increase of five in the fourth year (*i.e.* 1948-49).
- (ii) *Additional grants* to the poorest areas, on the basis yet to be settled.
- (iii) *Grants at special rates* in respect of expenditure on school meals and milk."¹³

The net result of these changes can be stated as follows :

- (i) The general tendency has been to simplify the system of grant-in-aid, to substitute a single grant (or a few grants) for a large multiplicity of them and to adopt such local authority as a unit.
- (ii) The number of local authorities is reduced from 3,351 in 1870 to 150 in 1944. This development combined with the principle of adopting each local authority as a unit for purposes of grant-in-aid has led to a still further simplification in the system of grant.

¹²Beattie and Taylor : The New Law of Education, p. 78.
tion, p. 73.

¹³Beattie and Taylor : The New Law of Education, p. 78.

- (iii) The amount of grant-in-aid given by the national government has increased on account of the increase in the total cost of education and today, the National Government pays more than half of the total expenditure on primary education.

From England, therefore, one can learn some important lessons regarding the administration of education through local authorities. The British people have a genius for evolution and since 1870 they have adopted ever increasing units for the local administration of education to suit modern requirements. Moreover, with their respect for tradition and love of decentralisation they have maintained a strong element of local control in education in spite of the necessity to provide larger grants from the National Government. In fact, they have not strictly followed the principle that power should follow the purse and Parliament has been willing to sanction ever increasing grants-in-aid without demanding additional powers in return. Consequently, the bickerings over division of authority between the government and local bodies which mark educational administration in several countries are conspicuous by their absence. Moreover, the L. E. A.s in England have set up a long tradition of efficient administration which has become a model for others to copy. On the whole, therefore, a student of educational administration will find the British system of administering primary education (as a joint responsibility of the government and the local bodies) very instructive from several points of view.

5. *New Zealand* : New Zealand offers a perfect contrast to England. Here, a beginning was made with an extremely decentralised system in which large powers were exercised by local education boards or committees. But later on most of the powers given to the boards were withdrawn although it was not possible to abolish them altogether. Consequently, there arose a very inconvenient system which was decentralised in appearance but really centralised in effect. As similar developments have taken place in some States of India, particularly Bombay, the administration of primary education in New Zealand deserves careful study.

(i) *History of the Administration of Primary Education in New Zealand* : The history of modern education in New Zealand begins in 1840 when it came under the sovereignty of the British Crown ; but a vigorous attempt to develop education began only in 1852 when self-government was conferred on the colony. At this time, New Zealand had a federal form of government wherein, after the American model, education was not even mentioned. Consequently, each of the nine Provincial Governments which formed the federation, assumed all responsibility for education and took steps to develop it by passing Education Acts, raising taxes for education, establishing public schools, and by sanctioning grants-in-aid. The actual administration of primary education was greatly decentralised everywhere and every primary school was placed under a Local School Committee which had large powers vested in them (these even included the powers to appoint and dismiss teachers).

In 1876 the federal form of government was abandoned as inconvenient and a unitary government was established for the colony as a whole. Although the reform was inevitable, it offended the "provincialists" and, in order to please them, it was decided to create local education boards for the administration of primary education. It was obviously believed that the disgruntled provincialists would find places of honour as members of the local education boards. The Education Act of 1877, therefore, created twelve Education Boards for the administration of primary education. These were given large powers which included inspection of schools, supervision over the work of the school committees, constitution of school districts, appointment and dismissal of teachers, provision

of school buildings and equipment and the establishment of district high schools for secondary education. Under the boards, school committees were established for each school district. Their powers included the construction and the maintenance of school buildings and the supplying of light, fuel and water. They had powers to enforce compulsory attendance and had to be consulted by the local education boards in appointing and dismissing teachers. The local education boards had no funds of their own ; but the National Government gave them a grant-in-aid at £3 15s for every child in average attendance and they had full authority to spend it as they liked.

Between 1877 and 1895, the local education boards became very powerful on account of several reasons. In the first place, the Education Department which was supposed to control them had so inadequate a staff that it could hardly exercise any supervision. Secondly, the members of the local education boards were influential men in the legislature. The government, therefore, could not displease them or curtail the powers of the boards. Thirdly, the school committees never became strong and could not curtail the growing power of the local education boards.

In 1895, however, the tide began to turn and the powers of the local education boards began to be curtailed. The public School Teachers Incorporation and Court of Appeal Act (1896) gave the teachers a right of appeal to a tribunal in case of summary dismissals or other forms of punishment. In 1914, the powers of inspection were withdrawn from the local education boards. The financial powers of the Boards were also reduced very considerably. On account of these and other changes the boards became more or less advisory bodies and the question arose whether it was worthwhile to continue them. Two attempts were made to abolish them altogether but both of them did not succeed. Consequently, the present position is rather embarrassing. In fact, there is a kind of a stalemate and the national government is not willing to surrender additional powers to the boards nor can it abolish them altogether. The complicated and inefficient administration that results from such a deadlock is best described in the following words of Webb :—

“ At the cost of much duplication of effort, the department has surrounded Local Education Authorities with an elaborate network of supervision and restriction. The administrative process has become intolerably tedious and round about and can only be simplified either by the abolition of the local authorities or by a re-division of functions between local authorities and the department. But the department will not surrender the powers it has fought so hard to win and the boards are strong enough to prevent complete centralisation. The result is an embittered deadlock.”¹³

Even to this day the deadlock continues, and no improvement is possible unless either the local boards are abolished or they are given more powers.

From the history narrated above, it will be seen that the main controversial problem in the administration of primary education in Bombay and New Zealand refers to the continuance or abolition of school boards. In New Zealand, the controversy began in 1877 when all powers were transferred to the local education boards. Between 1895 and 1919 the powers of the boards were withdrawn gradually until they were reduced to the position of mere advisory bodies and then attempts were made to abolish them completely ; but they did not succeed. Hence the unsatisfactory administration position described above. In Bombay, the boards were given full authority over primary education in 1923. From 1938, the Government began to withdraw powers of the boards one after another and today the district school boards are more or less advisory bodies. An attempt

¹³ Webb Leicester :—The Control of Education in New Zealand.
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was also made to abolish the boards but it did not succeed. Consequently, the position in the administration of primary education in the Province of Bombay is, at present, more or less the same as that in New Zealand.

2. *Some Features of the Administration of Primary Education in New Zealand* :—Three features of the New Zealand system are of special interest.

(a) The local education boards in New Zealand have no financial resources of their own ; nor do the school committees raise funds from local taxation. All their income comes through grants-in-aid from the State. This probably is the chief reason for their weakness.

(b) The school committees in New Zealand are active and useful organisations. They have fairly large powers which are generally exercised with zeal and competence. The following points show the difference between the school committees in New Zealand and the school committees in Bombay (which may be taken as typical of the village school committees in India).

New Zealand School Committees

Bombay School Committees

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|--|---|
| 1. The New Zealand school committees are elected by the householders residing in the school district. | 1. The Bombay school committees are appointed by the village panchayats if a panchayat exists in the village. Otherwise they are appointed by the district school boards. |
| 2. The members of the school committees elect the members of the local education boards. | 2. No such authority. |
| 3. The New Zealand school committees have regular financial income at 6s per child which is given to them by the government through the local education boards. | 3. The Bombay school committees have no financial powers. They get no grant either from the government or from the district school boards. |
| 4. The powers of the New Zealand school committees are wider. They have a voice in the appointment of teachers; they have a right to be consulted before a teacher is transferred; they also have a larger control in the day-to-day life of the school. | 4. The Bombay school committees have few and nominal powers. |

(c) The New Zealand experiment shows that a half-hearted attempt to administer primary education through local bodies cannot succeed. The local bodies might have nothing to do with primary education as in Australia or they might be given adequate authority over primary education so that they will perform their task with zeal and efficiency. But it is no advantage to create a system in which the local bodies are allowed a minor role in administration and are hardly trusted.

6. *France* : The system of local control of primary education that prevails in France is unique and of great interest to Indian educationists because it is capable of adoption to our rural conditions with great advantage.

(1) *The French Local Bodies* : In France, there is only one type of local body, viz., the *commune*, which corresponds, according to the population of its area, to a village panchayat, a district municipality, a borough municipality or a municipal corporation. In the Republic of France as a whole, there are 37,944 communes. Some of them have a population of less than 50 persons while the City of Paris with a population of 46 lakhs is also a commune. The administration of a commune is entrusted to a council which has ten members if the population is less than 500 and 36 members if it exceeds 60,000.

(2) *The Division of Powers between the National Government and the Communes* : The most important feature of the administration of primary education in France is that the teachers form a central cadre which is recruited and controlled by the National Government alone. As a corollary to this, the National Government also bears all expenditure in connection with the salaries and allowances of teachers. The second important power which the National Government in France exercises is that of inspection. All inspecting officers are the servants of the National Government and are appointed, paid and controlled by the National Government.

The powers of the commune over primary education are, therefore, greatly limited. They construct and maintain the buildings of primary schools, appoint inferior servants required by the schools, purchase and supply school furniture and materials of instruction, and arrange for school excursions, mid-day lunches, etc. In short, the powers of the communes over primary education relate to all matters other than the control of teachers and their remuneration.

This system has several advantages. The teachers are happy under it, because their service conditions are centrally determined and because they escape the tyranny of local school committees. The efficiency of the teaching service is also greatly increased owing to centralised administration. The teachers get a better remuneration as servants of the National Government than what they would have obtained as servants of the communes. The system also does not throw a great financial liability on the communes, because the biggest item of expenditure—the salaries and allowances of teachers—is borne by the National Government. It also leaves enough scope for local initiative and local interest in maintaining and improving the efficiency of the school. On the whole, therefore, the French system of administering primary education is very useful in a plan where government provides the largest part of the expenditure and desires to share authority with the local bodies on the basis of the funds provided.

(c) *Financial Powers and Responsibilities of the Communes*—The communes meet the following items of expenditure on primary education :—

(1) *Recurring Expenditure*—

- (a) The upkeep and, if necessary, the rent of primary school building; a lodging for teachers or an allowance in lieu of the same; a residence for directors and directresses.
- (b) School costs of heat and light.
- (c) Wages of domestics (*gens de service*) in infant schools.
- (d) Costs of sweeping and cleaning the school premises in communes, or divisions, having a total population of at least 500 inhabitants.

(N.B. In communes or divisions of less than 500 inhabitants, the sweeping is done by pupils of suitable age or by their families. It is not placed upon them as a punishment but rather as a social duty.)

- (e) The purchase, upkeep, and renewal of school furniture and materials of instruction.
- (f) School record forms and printed materials.
- (g) Allowances to foremen, overseers and workmen appointed by the commune to provide instruction in agriculture, commercial and industrial branches.

- (2) *Non-recurring Expenditure*—The cost of purchase, construction and remodelling of school premises when the establishment of a school has been decided upon in conformity with the laws and regulations.

(3) *Optional Expenditure*—

- (a) Grants for school furniture.
- (b) Appropriations for the school welfare fund (*la caisse des ecoles*).
- (c) Prizes and scholarships.
- (d) Medical inspections.
- (e) Cost of maintaining continuation classes and classes or schools provided at the option of the commune.

The communes meet these financial responsibilities for primary education by raising funds in the following six ways :—

- (1) Amount set aside for primary education from their ordinary revenues.
- (2) Grants from the National Government.
- (3) Payments by families for supplies of lunches, and other services not furnished gratis by the commune.
- (4) Gifts of patrons.
- (5) Funds received from the local charity bureau for the luncheons, aprons, and overshoes of children from poor families.
- (6) The school welfare fund (*caisse des ecoles*).

Of these various sources of revenue, the most interesting is the School Welfare Fund or *caisse des ecoles*. This fund is raised by the voluntary contributions from the people living in the commune and is utilised for certain local requirements of the primary schools. The first idea of this fund probably dates from 1849. F. H. Swift describes the organisation and utilisation of this fund in the following words :—

“ Certain companies of the National Guard from the section which today forms the second *arrondissement* of Paris, conceived the idea of establishing by contributions a fund to pay for the work of poor pupils and to be used to aid their families in the purchase of books and clothing. The institution thus voluntarily created proved its own worth to such an extent that in 1882 its establishment was made compulsory for every commune. Its purpose as stated by existing law is ‘to encourage and facilitate school attendance by rewards to industrious pupils and by assistance to indigent pupils.’ ”

Other purposes to which the money in the school chest may be applied include private schools or to aid pupils attending private schools. For similar reasons students. One rural school visited in 1928 had used 5,000 francs of its school chest to send sixteen poor children to the seashore the previous summer and the balance of its fund for school excursions to places of historic interests.

The *caisse des ecoles* is distinctly a public fund. It may not be used to aid private schools or to aid pupils attending private schools. For similar reasons the school chest is debarred from accepting gifts or legacies to be used for the benefit of private school pupils.

The *caisse des ecoles* is composed of private subscriptions, gifts, bequests, contributions of books, clothing, food, subventions from the commune, from the *department*, and from the National Government. The schoolmaster of a rural school informed me with great pride that every family in his commune had given something to the school chest and that the individual gifts ranged from 5 to 300 francs and the totals from 7,000 to 8,000 francs per year. The

national appropriation is apportioned by the Ministry among the *departments* on the basis of the number of *caisses des ecoles* maintained and their activity. The local apportionment of the fund is in the hands of a committee composed of members of the local school commission and certain elected members."¹⁴

A comparison of the French system with that in the U. S. A. or England shows a radical difference. Unlike the American School Boards or British L. E. A.s, the French communes have no authority over primary teachers. But they also contribute a far smaller amount to the expenditure on primary education. The French system is also different from and superior to that in New Zealand. In the first place, there is only one local body (the commune) in France as against two in New Zealand; the School Committee and the Local Education Board. But whereas in New Zealand almost every power of the Local Education Board is circumscribed, supervised, or controlled by the Department, the French communes have supreme authority in their own sphere, however small. France, therefore, supplies a unique method of resolving the conflicts for authority between the State and the local authorities and it might be usefully adopted in certain circumstances, especially in India. It would indeed be difficult to find a better method of creating a local body for every village and resting it with authority over primary education than by treating it on the lines of the French communes.

7. *Local Control in Education (Philippines)* : The Philippine Islands came under American authority in 1899 and obtained complete internal autonomy in 1935 and full independence in 1946. The foundations of its administration of primary education were, therefore, laid by American administrators and naturally, they were based on the American concept of local control and finance in education. But owing to the socio-economic difference in background, the Philippines were forced to adopt a more centralised pattern of administration at a later date.

(a) *General Data About Philippine Administration* : The highest governments, municipalities, and municipal districts. The chartered cities correspond to our Federal Government. Under it, there are 49 provinces, and in each province there is a Provincial Government. Under the Provincial Governments are the units of Local Self-Government. These last are of three types : chartered cities, municipalities, and municipal districts. The chartered cities correspond to our corporations or municipal boroughs; the municipalities are established in bigger towns; and the rural and semi-rural areas are grouped under municipal districts, each district containing one or more villages. There is, therefore, nothing in the Philippine Islands which corresponds to our district local boards. Their municipal districts are really small groups of villages which are very convenient to administer. There are in all six chartered cities, 939 municipalities and 261 municipal districts.

The provinces of the Philippine Islands are not equal in size. They vary, in area from a Cotabate with 9,260 sq. miles (this is equivalent to about three districts of ours) to Batanes and, in population, from Cebu with more than a million people to Batanes which has a population of 9,500 only. It must also be remembered that these provinces are not complete governmental units with a legislature, a ministry and a high court as in our States. They are merely subordinate administrative units under the Insular Government, and their main functions are two : (1) to act as agents of the Insular Government and (2) to supervise the working of the municipalities and municipal districts.

¹⁴ F. H. Swift : *European Policies of Financing Educational Institutions*, pp. 30-31.

The municipalities and the chartered cities also vary largely in population. For instance, Manila, the capital of the Philippine Islands, has a population of 6,23,192, whereas the smallest municipality has a population of less than 2,000. The population of the municipal districts also varies considerably. In some cases it is less than 100 and in others, it exceeds 35,000. These local bodies are fully representative of the people and they are in charge of all local functions in which education is included.

(b) *The Finance of Primary Education in the Philippine Islands* : The problem of the finance of primary education in the Philippine Islands can be conveniently studied under three periods (i) prior to 1938, (ii) between 1938 and 1940 and (iii) after 1940.

(i) *Prior to 1938*—The primary schools were financed by the councils of municipalities and municipal districts. The funds for primary education were generally provided by percentage of the land-tax, one-half of the cedula tax (this was a sort of poll-tax) and additional funds sanctioned by the municipal council and the bulk of the expenditure on primary education was borne by the local authorities. This is not surprising. In America, more than two-thirds of the expenditure on primary education is paid for by the local authorities. The Americans, therefore, introduced their own model in the Philippines.

But this system did not work satisfactorily and a number of difficulties arose in practice. Very often, the municipalities could not and would not provide adequate funds for primary education. Moreover, the funds sanctioned by the local authorities for primary education varied from year to year and consequently, it was not possible to maintain any definite progress. In the depression which followed the year 1929, the revenues of the local authorities were greatly reduced and this had a very bad effect on education. And finally, in 1937, the cedula tax was abolished because it was very unpopular. As the cedula tax formed an important source of financing primary education, this system of finance practically collapsed.

(ii) *Between 1938 and 1940*—In 1938, a new plan was prepared to finance primary education. Under the terms of this plan (1) the Insular Government was to pay the cost of all primary schools (Std. I to IV) ; (2) the local authorities were to provide school sites for all schools and were to pay for the cost of all intermediate schools; (3) the local authorities were authorised to raise funds for the purpose by reimposing the cedula tax on all inhabitants between the ages of 18 to 60. But this plan also could not work. The local authorities refused to levy the cedula tax ; and consequently, the plan had to be given up in less than two years.

(iii) *After 1940*—In 1940, the Education Act passed by the Philippine Legislature made the Insular Government fully responsible for all expenditure on primary education.

The Philippine Islands, therefore, have now established a completely centralized system of educational finance since 1940. This is expected to have two results. "It should make the administration of school finances much easier and result in a greater uniformity in the quality of the public schools throughout the Islands. On the other hand, it may be expected still further to reduce the responsibility of the governments and the people of the local units for their schools and for the local public affairs generally. Such a result would tend to accelerate the decrease in democratic local self-government which has been in progress during the Commonwealth period."¹⁵

¹⁵Hayden : *The Philippines (A Study in National Development)*, p. 473.

(e) *The Administration of Primary Education in the Philippine Islands :* The administration of primary education in the Philippines has always been centralised to a great extent and this centralization has increased all the more after the Insular Government took the whole responsibility for financing primary education. The present system of administration of primary education is as follows :—

- (a) At the head of the Education Department, there is the Director of Education.
- (b) Under the Director of Education come divisional superintendents of schools. In the Philippine Islands, there are 55 divisional superintendents—one for each of the 49 provinces and 6 chartered cities.
- (c) A divisional superintendent of schools has large powers. He is the head of all the school work in his area. He appoints all 'municipal' teachers. All correspondence from and to teachers passes through his office. He distributes school supplies and is responsible for school property. He travels from town to town and inspects schools.
- (d) Under the divisional superintendent of schools are supervising teachers and school principals. Each supervising teacher is in charge of a group of schools within a convenient distance.

It will be seen from the foregoing account that, in Philippines, the Insular Government is fully responsible for all expenditure on primary education and that the local bodies have very little control over it. In the interest of primary education it was a right step for the Insular Government to assume financial responsibility. But this could have been easily combined with some form of local control or association. Unfortunately, the problem does not seem to have been approached from this point of view.

During the war, the educational system in Philippines was greatly disturbed under the Japanese occupation. What form the reconstruction of education has taken after the war it is not possible to say on account of non-availability of data.

APPENDIX B(1)

Work Done by Villagers of Sholapur District in the Field of Primary Education

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

In the field of education, the Sholapur villagers have created a record which it will be very difficult for other districts to beat. Within the brief span of a few months, there sprang up school buildings in 424 villages in the district, providing accommodation of over 1,000 rooms for boys and girls. The cost on the basis of Government estimates for these buildings runs into the huge figure of nearly Rs. 30,00,000. Out of this amount, nearly Rs. 5,00,000 is being shared by the Government in the form of grant-in-aid, the remaining amount being the contribution given by the villagers in the form of labour and cash—the latter to the tune of about Rs. 4,00,000.

There were only 326 villages having school buildings, out of the 955 villages in the district in the pre-Gram Sudhar Suptah period. During the period of nine months following nearly 400 villages have been added to the list as a result of voluntary efforts of the villagers.

NO VILLAGE WITHOUT SCHOOL BUILDING

In North Sholapur Taluka before October 1950, there were school buildings in six villages only, out of a total number of 42. The Mamlatdar, Shri Kapotey, expressed his determination to build a school for each village and within a few months' time he turned his 'dream' into a reality with the help of the voluntary efforts of villagers. The result is that at present there is not a single village in the North Sholapur Taluka which is without a school building, a unique achievement indeed. In South Sholapur Taluka, too, the same story was repeated and not a single village there is now without a school building.

The maximum number of school buildings, viz. 84, has been constructed in the Barsi Taluka, while the largest building constructed during the campaign is at Maindargi in the Akkalkot Taluka. The building is worth nearly Rs. 1 lakh according to Government estimates. The credit for this achievement goes to the Circle Officer of Maindargi.

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APPENDIX B(2)

Work Done by Villagers of the Punjab in the Field of Primary Education

District boards in the Punjab expect the inhabitants of the locality to gift land and give funds for the construction of buildings for housing primary schools. The response has been very encouraging and in some districts remarkable. The districts named below have made outstanding contribution to the promotion of primary education and to the construction and improvement of primary school buildings.

Ferozepore District : In the Ferozepore district during the last year the villagers paid for the construction of 60 class rooms and 26 verandahs. Altogether they collected between themselves a sum of Rs. 2,09,600. Money was also collected for giving the schools hand pumps. A sum of Rs. 3,500/- was spent in the district of Ferozepore. Compound walls for schools was another item on which villagers spent their effort.

Schools were provided with boundary walls at a cost of Rs. 1,370/-. 21 acres of land of the value of Rs. 20,000/- was gifted to the District Board for constructing school buildings and for providing play grounds and farms for the schools.

Hissar District : In 16 villages named below the villagers gifted sites and constructed buildings for primary schools :

1. Bhatol. 2. Jamori. 3. Dhansu. 4. Pabra. 5. Sandwa. 6. Rodhan.
7. Khairampur. 8. Chaharwala. 9. Kapre. 10. Ghirai. 11. Dhani Mahu.
12. Chehar Kalan. 13. Gurehra. 14. Bisalwas. 15. Khar-khari (Loharu). 16. Ding.

Jullundur District : In the Jullundur district a sum of Rs. 17,500/- was deposited with the District Board for the purpose of extending and constructing new buildings at Bhogpur, Kang Arian and Udhawal.

Karnal District : The villagers collected Rs. 30,000/- for the construction of buildings for schools.

Rohtak District : During the last year the Rohtak district experienced a wave of unusual enthusiasm for primary education. It was of the nature of an *afflatus* and the public collected a sum of Rs. 23,76,142/-. Besides this sum, which was utilised for constructing school buildings, land worth Rs. 1,36,500/- was gifted for school play grounds and garden plots.

Work of Village Panchayats : During the period ending 31st October 1951, *Panchayats* started 115 primary schools and persuaded 2,100 boys to join schools. They constructed buildings for 169 schools and effected repairs to 113 existing buildings. They also opened 193 libraries and 96 reading rooms. The *Panchayats* spent a sum of Rs. 78,336/- on the construction and repairs of school buildings.

APPENDIX B(3)

Powers and Duties of the Administrative Officer

61. Powers and duties as the Chief Executive Officer of the School Board—

- (1) Duties in relation to the meetings of the school boards—Administrative officer shall be responsible for :
 - (a) arranging for the preparation of the agenda of the school board meeting and submitting such Agenda to the Chairman for his approval ;
 - (b) offering in writing his remarks on each item of the agenda as approved by the Chairman ;
 - (c) arranging for the issue to all members of the school board of the notice about the place, date, time and agenda of the school board meeting ;
 - (d) attending all meetings of the school board and the important ones of its sub-committees, and answering such questions and supplying such information as may be put or called for in such meeting (He shall not, however, be entitled to vote) ;
 - (e) arranging for the keeping of the minutes and reports of such meetings accurately and clearly ;
 - (f) taking action on the minutes or reports whenever necessary ; and
 - (g) doing such other work connected with the meetings of the School Board as may be found necessary.
- (2) Duties in relation to primary schools—The Administrative Officer shall :
 - (a) be responsible for the general administration of all primary schools maintained by a District School Board or an authorised municipality, as the case may be, and, in particular, for determining and satisfying, as far as possible, the requirements of such schools in regard to accommodation, staff, furniture, equipment, repairs and other general supplies, for the conduct and discipline of these schools as educational institutions, for the organisation of annual examinations in such schools and for their periodical visitation with a view to checking their day to day working ;
 - (b) determine and pay grant-in-aid to approved private schools on behalf of the School Board ;

Such a Board serves as a clearing-house for ideas and can materially assist State Governments in policy drafting by making them conversant with the views of non-official experts and representatives of local bodies. We, therefore, recommend that every State should create a statutory State Board of Primary Education to serve as an important connecting link between the non-official experts, the Education Departments, and the local bodies associated with the administration of primary education.

 - (c) be responsible for carrying out the suggestions made from time to time by the officers appointed by the Government under section 48(1) of the Act in connection with the schools maintained by the District School Board or an authorised municipality.

(3) Duties in regard to schemes of expansion—The Administrative Officer shall :

- (a) arrange for the preparation of the draft schemes for the expansion of primary education on a voluntary or compulsory basis either on his own motion or according to the directions received from the Government or the School Board or the authorised municipality, as the case may be ;
- (b) submit to the School Board proposals for additional expenditure ;
- (c) if he is the Administrative Officer of a District School Board, be responsible for carrying out the provisions of a sanctioned scheme ; and
- (d) do such other work in connection with the schemes of expansion as may be found necessary.

(4) Duties with regard to Financial matters—The Administrative Officer shall be responsible for :

- (a) arranging for the timely preparation of the annual or revised or supplementary budget of the School Board and of the reappropriation statement ;
- (b) reporting on the financial effect of all proposals for the expansion of primary education or new items of expenditure ;
- (c) answering all objections raised by the Auditors ; and
- (d) for the general administration, maintenance and use of the Primary Education Fund.

(5) Duties in relation to educational matters—(a) It shall be the duty of the Administrative Officer to advise the School Board generally on all matters connected with primary education in its area and on the working of the schemes of educational expansion.

(b) In particular, and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing clause, the Administrative Officer shall :

- (i) make recommendations to the School Board in regard to the taking over of private schools or the development of the existing lower grade schools maintained by the District School Board or Authorised Municipality into full-grade schools or the places where new schools should be opened ;
- (ii) make, on the basis of the Deputy Educational Inspector's remarks, recommendations to the School Board for the first recognition or the payment of grant-in-aid to a private school or for the withdrawal of such recognition or grant-in-aid ;
- (iii) recommend to the School Board the distance measured according to the nearest road between an approved school and the residence of a child for the purposes of clause (c) of section 33 of the Act ;
- (iv) recommend to the School Board the grant of exemption from attending an approved school to a child who is receiving instruction otherwise than in an approved school ;
- (v) be responsible for causing enquiries to be made into the needs of different villages and areas, particularly of backward areas, as regards primary education ;
- (vi) make recommendations to the School Board in regard to the changes in the curriculum to meet local requirements ;

- (vii) prepare draft regulations to be made by the District School Board under section 13(3), by the Authorised Municipality under section 17(3) and by the Municipal School Board under section 18(3) of the Act, as the case may be ;
 - (viii) be responsible for determining the requirements of school libraries and reading rooms and arrangement for the award of prizes in schools ; and
 - (ix) perform such other duties connected with educational matters as may be found necessary.
- (6) Duties with regard to the properties of the District School Board and Authorised Municipalities—
- (a) The Administrative Officer shall be responsible for :
 - (i) arranging for the maintenance of an inventory of all properties—moveable and immoveable—vesting in, held by or under the control of the District School Board or Authorised Municipality, as the case may be ;
 - (ii) ensuring that such property is properly cared for and is kept in good order ;
 - (iii) arranging for the carrying out, so far as the School Board budget will allow, of special or ordinary repairs to school and other buildings belonging to the District School Board or Authorised Municipality ;
 - (iv) giving advice to the District Building Committee, District School Board or Authorised Municipality, as the case may be, in regard to alterations, enlargements or improvements in school and other buildings belonging to the District School Board or Authorised Municipality ;
 - (v) performing such other duties connected with the property of the District School Board or Authorised Municipality as may be found necessary.
 - (b) The Administrative Officer of a District School Board, as Secretary of the District Building Committee in the District shall be responsible for :
 - (i) arranging for the collection of all available information about the sites and existing accommodation in schools maintained by the District School Board, the additional accommodation required for such schools, the amount of grant sanctioned by the Government to the District Building Committee in any year for the construction and extension of school buildings, the contributions received from the villagers or non-Authorised Municipal areas for the purpose, the number of buildings that can be constructed or extended with the help of such grant and contributions ;
 - (ii) recommending to the District Building Committee priority for the construction or extension of school buildings in the District School Board area ;
 - (iii) attending all meetings of the District Building Committee ;
 - (iv) taking steps, as soon as the District Building Committee decides to construct or extend any primary school building, to :
 - (a) select, acquire and/or purchase the site for the school building ;
 - (b) invite tenders for the construction or extension of the building and place such tenders with his remarks before the District Building Committee for its orders ;

- (c) get the building work supervised by the Public Works Department officers and obtain from them a valuation certificate after the building is constructed or extended, as the case may be ;
 - (d) arrange for handing over the building to the District School Board after completion ;
 - (v) arranging for the maintenance of the accounts of the funds under the control of the District Building Committee ; and
 - (vi) doing such other work connected with the District Building Committee as may be found necessary.
- (7) Duties with regard to general administrative matters—The Administrative Officer shall :
- (a) advise the School Board Chairman with regard to the preparation of contract documents for the supply of forms, stationery, furniture or equipment for which tenders are required to be called for, inviting such tenders and place them before the School Board for orders with his recommendations ;
 - (b) cause enquiries to be made into applications for changes in the names and birthdates of pupils attending primary schools and submit his recommendations to the School Board Chairman after full investigation into the circumstances necessitating such changes and recording in writing reasons for such changes ;
 - (c) cause enquiries to be made into complaints received from the public or otherwise on any matter affecting primary education in his jurisdiction ;
 - (d) tour in the district, if he is the Administrative Officer of a District School Board, for such minimum number of days as may be laid down by the Director in this behalf for watching over and generally for keeping himself in touch with the administration of primary education in the district ;
 - (e) arrange for the annual inspection of schools maintained by the District School Board or Authorised Municipality in consultation with the Deputy Educational Inspector ; and
 - (f) arrange for the consolidation of the annual statistics of schools, pupils, etc. and for the preparation of the annual report on the administration of primary education in the area of the District School Board or Authorised Municipality, as the case may be.

62. Duties as Secretary of the Staff Selection Committee—

The Administrative Officer shall :

- (a) cause to be prepared every year a rough estimate of the vacancies likely to arise during the course of the year among the staff (excluding the inferior staff) maintained by a District School Board or among the posts of Assistant Administrative Officers, Supervisors, Attendance Officers and teachers maintained by the Authorised Municipality, as the case may be ;
- (b) invite, by advertisement in the local newspapers, applications from qualified candidates for such vacancies if candidates already selected by the Staff Selection Committee are not available to fill such vacancies ; .

- (c) cause a statement to be prepared showing the names of all candidates who have applied for the advertised vacancies, their age, community, qualifications, previous experience and other particulars and place such statement before the Staff Selection Committee ;
- (d) arrange to call for interview such candidates whom the staff Selection Committee desires to interview, and prepare a list of selected candidates ;
- (e) cause a statement to be prepared in accordance with the directions given by the Director showing the names of teachers recommunity, qualifications, previous experience and other particular other particulars and place such statement before the Staff Selection Committee for its orders ;
- (f) fix in consultation with the other members of the Staff Selection Committee the place, date and hour of the meeting of the Staff Selection Committee ;
- (g) attend all meetings of the Staff Selection Committee; and
- (h) do such other work connected with the Staff Selection Committee as may be found necessary.

63. Powers and duties with regard to the Staff of a District School Board or Authorised Municipality—(1) Appointments—

- (a) The Administrative Officer shall have power to appoint inferior servants.
- (b) The Administrative Officer of a District School Board shall :
 - (i) in his capacity as Administrative Officer, issue orders of appointments of candidates selected by the Staff Selection Committee for posts of teachers ;
 - (ii) on behalf of the District School Board, issue orders of appointments of candidates selected by the Staff Selection Committee for posts of Assistant Administrative Officers, Supervisors, Attendance Officers, Clerks and other posts (excluding posts of teachers and inferior servants) in accordance with the directions given by the Staff Selection Committee.
- (c) The Administrative Officer of a Municipal School Board shall :
 - (i) in his capacity as Administrative Officer, issue orders of appointments of candidates selected by the Staff Selection Committee for posts of teachers ;
 - (ii) on behalf of the Authorised Municipality issue orders of appointments of candidates selected by the Staff Selection Committee for posts of Assistant Administrative Officers, Supervisors and Attendance Officers in accordance with the directions given by the Staff Selection Committee ; and
 - (iii) recommend to the Municipal School Board the names of candidates for new appointments to posts mentioned in rule 39 of these rules.
- (2) Administrative Control—The Administrative Officer shall have power :
 - (a) to supervise, control and co-ordinate the work of the staff maintained by the District School Board or Authorised Municipality under section 20 of the Act;

- (b) to promote, transfer, censure, fine, withhold increments of, reduce, suspend, remove, or dismiss any member of such staff, subject to such general instructions as may, from time to time, be issued by the Director in this behalf :

Provided that no order of reduction, removal or dismissal shall be passed unless an enquiry has been made into the conduct of such member by the Administrative Officer or by a person authorised by him in this behalf in accordance with the procedure laid down in the Bombay Civil Services Conduct, Discipline and Appeal Rules.

Note—The removal or dismissal of any person under this clause may involve the loss of the whole or part of any pension admissible to such person or of such portion of the provident fund as is contributed by a District School Board or Authorised Municipality;

- (c) to grant casual or any other kind of leave to any such member ;
 (d) to recommend, in consultation with the Assistant Administrative Officer, to a School Board the reinstatement or re-employment of or extension of service to any member of the staff maintained under section 20 of the Act ; and
 (e) to recommend to the Staff Selection Committee the names of teachers to be deputed for training.



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APPENDIX B(4)

Scheme of District Building Committees Adopted in the State of Bombay Since 1938

1. District Building Committees—(a) To organise and supervise the provision of school buildings there will be in every district a District Building Committee consisting of the following :—

- (1) The President of the District Local Board, Chairman.
- (2) The Chairman of the District School Board.
- (3) All the *Prant* Officers.
- (4) The Executive Engineer of the District (Roads and Buildings).
- (5) The Deputy Educational Inspector.
- (6) The Members of the Bombay Legislative Council and Assembly representing the District and actually residing in the District.
- (7) Two prominent non-officials to be nominated by the Government.

The Administrative Officer of the District School Board shall be the Secretary of the District Building Committee.

(b) The tenure of non-official members appointed by the Government shall be three years provided that a non-official member not attending three consecutive meetings without the previous permission of the Chairman will vacate his seat forthwith.

(c) The District Building Committee shall meet as often as may be necessary but at least once in every six months and shall be responsible for laying down the general programme of work and for the discharge of functions entrusted to it under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, and the rules framed thereunder.

(d) (i) For carrying on the day to day work of administration of the District Building Committee, there shall be for every District an executive committee consisting of :—

- the President of the District Local Board—Chairman.
- the Chairman of the District School Board.
- the Executive Engineer of the District (Roads and Buildings).
- the District Local Board Engineer.
- the Administrative Officer of the District School Board—Secretary.

(ii) The Executive Committee shall meet as often as may be necessary but at least once every month.

(iii) The Executive Committee shall be responsible for implementing the building programme approved by the District Building Committee. In urgent matters, the Executive Committee may take action in anticipation of the approval of the District Building Committee. The Secretary of the Executive Committee shall report at the next ordinary meeting of the District Building Committee the action taken in such cases and the reason therefor.

2. Preparation of plans and estimates—the Government has approved four type of plans together with abstract estimate sheets devised by Shri Mahida, Superintending Engineer, Village Water Supply and Village Schools. The cost of construction is estimated to vary from Rs. 2,500 to Rs. 3,400 per unit according to the locality of construction and the plan adopted. District building committees should select any one type of the plans and see that the cost

of construction is kept as low as possible and does not exceed the maximum limit specified.

3. Programme of Work—The District Building Committee will approve generally the building programme for a period of six months arranged in order of priority. The possibility of economising the total cost of school buildings in a district by planning the construction programme for a district as a whole should always be borne in mind. The Executive Committee will then look to the execution of the building programme so approved including the selection of suitable sites, transfer or acquisition of the sites selected, calling for tenders for the construction of new school buildings or extension of the existing school buildings and their sanction. In order to secure better quotations, the Executive Committee should preferably call for tenders for the construction of at least 3½ school buildings at one time ; but care is needed in combining a number of works in one tender.

4. Supervisory Agency—It is not possible for the P.W.D. staff either to undertake construction or to perform the day-to-day task of supervision of building work. The Government has directed that the work of construction and supervision of primary school buildings may be entrusted to District Local Board Engineering staff and the District Local Board may be paid centage charges at seven per cent of the cost where the work is entrusted to the District Local Board Engineering staff. The amount required for any work which has been sanctioned by the District Building Committee should be credited to the District Local Board account.

5. Entrustment of Work to Villagers—A complaint that is often received is that the estimated cost of construction is too low and contractors do not come forward to tender within the limits specified. Experience in various districts has shown that it should be possible to secure construction within the working limits specified and it is hoped that the District Building Committee will be able to secure contractors who do not come forward to tender, or even where they do come forward, it is open to the District Building Committee to entrust the work of construction to any reliable local person or to the villagers. In order to encourage local people to undertake the work, the Government has authorised district building committees to pay advance grants where necessary to villagers who undertake the construction work on the following terms and conditions :

- (1) The District Building Committee should first decide to entrust the work of construction of the school building in the village to the villagers.
- (2) The building proposed to be constructed for a primary school by the villagers should be according to one of the designs approved by the Government in Government Resolution, Education Department, No. 8441, dated the 20th March 1950 (Appendix I).
- (3) The advance grant should be paid to a responsible villager selected by the villagers after first taking from him a security bond with one security solvent to twice the amount to be advanced to return the money in case the money is not spent on the construction of the building within three months.
- (4) The decision of the District Local Board Engineer or any other Engineer entrusted by the District Building Committee or the Government with the job of supervising the work will be final as to the value of the work done.
- (5) The amount to be advanced should be decided by the District Building Committee having regard to the merit of each case, but it should at no one time exceed Rs. 5,000 or the amount of the unspent building grant for the building, whichever is less.

6. Supply of Material—The difficulty in securing steel and cement required for construction has largely disappeared. The plans have been prepared so as to reduce the demand for these materials and the supply position is also somewhat easy. The distribution of steel is decided in meetings held at Bombay every quarter. All Administrative Officers should send to Assistant Secretary, Education Department, their estimated need for steel with full details indicating the details of items required, place of delivery, etc. for putting the demand before the Committee that decides distribution, so that necessary quarterly quotas can be released by the Provincial Rationing Officer (Iron and Steel). As regards cement required for the construction of school buildings, a monthly meeting of the Cement Co-ordination Committee is held at Bombay. All Administrative Officers have been asked to send to the Government their requirements of cement for each succeeding month for placing before the Committee. The quantity required by each district will be released by the Committee every month and the Government will communicate the same to them.

7. Valuation of Building Constructed—After the building is completed, the Executive Engineer of the District (Roads and Buildings), who is a member of the District Building Committee will issue the necessary valuation certificate to enable the District Building Committee to sanction final payment.

8. Government Contribution in Rural Areas—Until recently, Government's share of the cost of construction of school buildings in villages was two-third, the remaining one-third being met from contributions by the villagers and District Local Board together. The District Local Board now pays 15 per cent of the Local Fund cess of three annas for the Primary Education Fund and has no further liabilities. In view of the increased cost of building construction, the Government has decided to raise its share in the District School Board areas exclusive of non-authorised municipalities, to three-fourth, the remaining one-fourth being met from non-Government sources.

9. Government Contribution in Non-Authorised Municipal Areas—In the area of a non-authorised municipality, Government will continue to pay only one-third of the cost of contribution subject to budget provision. The remaining two-third cost will have to be found from non-Government sources and may be met from contributions by the local people or by contribution by the non-authorised Municipality or by both together.

10. Distribution of Government Grant.—Government will place at the disposal of every District Building Committee every year a specific amount, having regard to the grant voted by the Legislature, the amount of popular contributions collected and the balance at the disposal of the Committee. Of the grant given by Government to a District Building Committee in any year, 85 per cent should be utilised for the construction of buildings in rural areas and 15 per cent for the construction of buildings in non-authorised municipal areas. This proportion may be modified by Government, upon a request to that effect by the District Building Committee concerned giving adequate justification in support of its representation.

11. Concession to Backward Areas in the Matter of School Buildings—Government realises that it is difficult and perhaps even impossible for villagers in backward areas (which has been defined as one area where backward classes form more than 60 per cent of the total population) to pay the requisite contribution at one-fourth of the cost. In such cases Government will not insist upon the minimum contribution of villagers and the popular contribution in such areas may be equal to the estimated cost of the unskilled labour in the cost of construction of the building and it may be levied in cash or in kind. Government has further directed that of the grant annually placed at the disposal of the District Building Committee a proportion of not less than 15 per

cent and not more than 50 per cent should be earmarked for the construction of primary school buildings in villages in backward areas. The amount to be actually reserved for such areas should be fixed by the district building committees in consultation with the backward class district committees concerned. The Government trusts that the district building committees will pay due attention to the requirements of these backward villages and to the recommendations of the backward class district committees in allocating funds.

12. Increase in Popular Contribution Consequent on Rise in Prices—The popular contribution should be one-fourth or one-third of the actual cost of construction, as the case may be and where the cost increases after the popular contribution has been credited, the difference should be normally made up by the villagers. But in a number of cases villagers had paid their share of contribution but construction could not be taken up during war-time because of the ban on such construction and scarcity of materials. The cost of construction has considerably increased and the villagers are reluctant to pay the increased share. The Government has agreed as a special case to the construction of buildings of the same dimensions as originally planned and to meet the whole extra cost over and above the popular contribution.

13. Donations from Private Donors for Construction of Primary School Buildings—If charitably minded persons come forward with donations for the construction of primary school buildings and if their donation amounts to at least two-third of the cost, the school building will be named after any name the donor desires. The name can also be given even to a part of school building, including individual rooms.

14. Alternative Methods of Popular Contribution—It has been represented to the Government that in many villages the villagers may find it difficult even to pay the share of popular contribution at the rate of one-fourth of the cost for the construction of buildings according to the type plans. In the District of Ratnagiri a scheme was put forward for construction where there would be no popular contribution in cash and Government's contribution was limited to Rs. 500 per class room. The details are as follows :—

- (a) The villagers shall be allowed to construct the school buildings themselves according to their own specifications and design subject to the conditions that—
- (1) the structure gives the requisite floor space;
- (2) it is structurally safe as a school building;
- (3) it has sufficient light and ventilation;
- (4) it is such as would have a life of at least 25 years;
- (5) the valuation is in any case not less than Rs. 1,000 per class-room.

On a certificate from the District Local Board Engineer that the building is complete and fulfils these conditions, the District Building Committee will pay to the villagers a grant at the rate of Rs. 500 per one classroom school.

The responsibility for normal repairs of such buildings for the first ten years will be that of the villagers.

Where the buildings are being constructed according to type plans and the villagers are not in a position to pay the full popular contribution in cash, it is open to them to undertake the construction themselves. In such cases the procedure in paragraph 5 above will apply; but the villagers will receive a building grant equal to three-fourth of the agreed cost of the type of building selected. So long as the type of construction and the standards of specification are not lowered, the villagers should be allowed to effect such savings in cost as are possible by employing local labour free or at reduced rates.

15. Construction by Private Parties—It will also be open to well-to-do people to construct school buildings satisfying the minimum school requirements and rent them out to schools at a reasonable rent. The following orders are issued in this connection :—

- (i) District Building Committees should be authorised to invite members of the public to construct school buildings required for primary schools in villages in accordance with plans and specifications approved by the District Building Committee, which should conform to the standard type plans and specifications.
- (ii) On the completion of a building, the Government may direct its inspection through the Public Works Department or such other agency as it may decide. On certification that the building conforms generally to the plans and specifications prescribed, the District School Board will be required to lease the building compulsorily for purposes of a school and to pay the person constructing the building a rent for the building calculated on the basis of rupees eight per classroom.
- (iii) The District School Board shall also be responsible for current repairs to such buildings.
- (iv) The ownership of the building will vest in the person or persons constructing the building; but any person constructing a building in pursuance of this scheme and leasing it to the School Board will be undertaken to have agreed to transfer the building to the ownership of the District School Board on payment by the District Building Committee to him of three-fourth of the total cost of construction of the building as determined by the Inspecting Authority out of the grant of the District Building Committee received from the Government. The payment of the remaining one-fourth share representing the popular contribution of the cost of the building, should be a matter of settlement between the District Building Committee and the person concerned. The payment of rent will be discontinued from the date the three-fourth cost is paid by the District Building Committee.
- (v) The Secretary of the District Building Committee (*i.e.* the Administrative Officer) should maintain a list of buildings constructed under the scheme, showing the building constructed and its cost. The names in the list should be arranged in an order of priority by the District Building Committee, but once a person's position in the list is fixed it shall not be placed lower, except with his written consent.

APPENDIX B(5).

Utilisation of the Provident Fund of Primary Teachers for the Construction of School Buildings

At present, the provident funds of primary teachers vest in and are administered by the District School Boards or Municipal School Boards under whom the teachers serve. Their balances are usually invested in Government or other approved securities.

In order to make it possible for Government to utilise these balances for the construction of school buildings, the Government of Bombay have recently passed an Act which (1) creates a Central Provident Fund for the state as a whole, (2) merges the separate Provident Funds so far created by district and municipal school boards within the Central Fund, (3) authorizes the State Government to administer the single fund thus consolidated and (4) use it for specified purposes including the construction of primary school buildings. The following excerpt from the *Statement of Objects and Reasons* explains the outline of the scheme:

"A large number of school buildings are required to be put up all over the State to house the increased number of students who are attending primary schools as a result of the scheme of compulsory elementary education in all villages with a population of 1,000 and over introduced by Government and also under the scheme of providing educational facilities in villages with a population of 700 and over. If the scheme of compulsion is to proceed according to plan it is necessary to construct school buildings for primary schools wherever necessary. It is now proposed that the provident fund accumulations of all the members of the staff maintained by district school boards and of the primary school teachers maintained by authorised municipalities should be taken over by Government and applied for the purpose of building schools. It is accordingly proposed to amend the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, with a view to enabling Government to establish a provident fund for the staff maintained by district school boards and for primary school teachers maintained by authorised municipalities."

Here is the relevant section of the Bombay P. E. Act, 1947 (as amended), creating the single Provident Fund for the State as a whole:—

- "46A. (1) The State Government shall establish a provident fund (hereinafter called the said fund) for the staff maintained by district school boards or for the primary school teachers maintained by authorized municipalities.
- (2) Any provident fund established and maintained by a district school board or an authorized municipality for such staff or teachers, as the case may be, before the date of the coming into force of the Bombay Primary Education (Amendment) Act, 1951, shall be merged into and form part of the said fund and the district school board or the authorized municipality concerned shall as soon as may be after the said date

transfer from its primary education fund to the said fund a sum equal to the total amount standing to the credit of all the subscribers or depositors in the provident fund till the date of such transfer :

Provided that in the event of any doubt arising as to the amount to be so transferred by any district school board or authorized municipality from its primary education fund to the said fund, the matter shall be referred to the State Government or any one authorized by it in this behalf, whose decision shall be final.

- (3) The district school board or the authorised municipality concerned shall, in respect of each of its employees who is a subscriber to the said fund, pay into the said fund such portion of the contribution in such manner as the State Government may, from time to time, determine."

The advantages of the scheme are two : (1) the teachers get a higher rate of interest and (2) the Government can raise a substantially large loan for the construction of school buildings.



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APPENDIX B(6)

Procedure for the Enforcement of Compulsory Primary Education

A comparative study of the Primary Education Acts and Rules made thereunder shows that the usual procedure prescribed for prosecuting a defaulting parent is too elaborate and needs several amendments to make it simpler, quicker and more effective. Probably the most direct and simple procedure was that adopted in Baroda. Here the lists of non-attending children were prepared by revenue officials with the help of teachers and published annually at prescribed periods. Then a general notice was issued to the effect that parents who had children liable to compulsory education should either claim an exemption under the Act or send them to schools from a specified date. If an exemption was claimed, it was considered and disposed off on merits. But if no exemption was claimed or if the application for exemption was rejected, the parent was presumed to be liable to send the child to school and if the child was not enrolled on the specified date, he was prosecuted right away and the prosecution was repeated every month till the child was enrolled. The adoption of this simple and direct procedure was possible in Baroda for two reasons. In the first place, compulsory education was in force in the State for more than 50 years and the people were sufficiently accustomed to be dealt with in a simplified manner. Secondly, the Government of Baroda amended its Act from time to time in the light of actual experience and attempted to evolve an efficient and straightforward procedure which would avoid delays and yet be just and fair to the parents. In the other Acts, however, the situation has been entirely different. Most of these Acts were passed long ago between 1919 and 1930. The procedure for the enforcement of compulsion described therein was, therefore, drawn up at a time when practical experience in the enforcement of compulsory education was not available. Obviously, therefore, the ordinary procedure prescribed by the compulsory education Acts in India is elaborate. As an instance in point, the procedure laid down in the State of Bombay which took a lead in legislating on the subject and whose law has been mostly copied elsewhere, is as follows :

(1) *Census* : At least three to four months before the beginning of the school year, a house-to-house census is organized and lists of children liable to compulsory education are prepared.

(2) *Publication of Lists* : After the census, lists of all non-attending children in the compulsory area, are prepared and published in the prescribed manner.

(3) *Individual Notice to Parents* : On the publication of the lists, each parent of the non-attending child is served individually with a notice to send his child to a specified school from a specified date. He is also informed that he might claim an exemption on a reasonable excuse for non-attendance and that, if he desires to do so, he should apply to a specified officer within a specified time. If no such appeal is made, the parent is presumed to be liable to send his child to school as required in the individual notice.

(4) *Hearing of Applications for Exemption* : If an application for an exemption on a reasonable excuse is granted, further action will not be taken in respect of the child. If it is rejected, the parent's liability to send his child is taken as established.

(5) *Report of Non-attendance* : The Headmaster of every school is required, within ten days of the opening of the school, to report the names of children who have failed to attend in accordance with the notices under (3) above.

(6) *Attendance Order* : The defaulting parent is then summoned before the School Board or the person authorised by it for a personal hearing. An inquiry is made in the whole case and, unless the parent has some reasonable excuse to

the contrary, he is served with an attendance order which directs him to send his child to school.

(7) *Prosecution* : A parent who fails to comply with the attendance order is prosecuted and is liable to a fine not exceeding two rupees ; for repeated failures to comply with the attendance order, he is liable to a *de diem* fine of eight annas for every day the non-attendance is repeated or continued.

This elaborate procedure has been practically adopted by the other Acts with some modifications and it would, therefore, be convenient to discuss their provisions in order of the seven stages given above.

The Census of the Children of School-going Age : When a duly prepared scheme of compulsory education is sanctioned by the Government and introduced in an area, the stage for enforcement is set and the procedure starts.

The first step is to take a census of all children of school-going age residing in the area of compulsion and to prepare a list of non-attending children against whom the legal process of compulsion would have to be set in motion. But no Primary Education Act makes provision for the holding of such a census. This is a matter generally left to be provided for in rules or by-laws.

It will, however, be desirable to make a statutory provision to the effect that it shall be the duty of the authority charged with the enforcement of compulsion to hold such a census annually in a specified period. It is also found that parents often give false data regarding age, address, etc., in order to escape the legal processes and it is, therefore, also essential to provide that every parent shall be liable to give correct information to a census officer and that if any one is found to have deliberately given incorrect or false data, he will be liable to prosecution and fine. Some such provisions on the general lines of those meant for the decennial census would be a welcome addition to the compulsory laws.

3. *Publication of the Lists of Non-attending Children* : This is a formality which has little or no use. Printing and publishing the lists would be a waste of money and energy. All that is usually done, therefore, is to publish the lists on the noticeboards of schools concerned. Since the individual notice to parents secures all the advantages of a formal publication, this stage may be conveniently dropped, even in areas where it has been specifically provided.

4. *Individual Notice to Parents* : In the present conditions of India where a large majority of parents is illiterate, an individual notice is necessary and serves a useful purpose in educating public opinion. This step, therefore, must be insisted upon.

5. *Reasonable Excuses for Non-attendance* : When individual notices are served to parents, the next step is to decide whether any of the non-attending children need to be exempted from the operation of the Act. The general principles on which children are to be exempted are four :

- (a) cases where compulsion to attend a school is likely to cause hardship to the child ;
- (b) cases where compulsion to attend is likely to cause hardship to the family ;
- (c) cases where compulsion to attend is either unnecessary because the child is receiving or has received good education otherwise or is likely to be wasteful because he is incapable of benefiting from the instruction imparted ; and
- (d) cases where there are religious or other sentimental grounds against compulsory attendance.

This is a very important point and, therefore, every compulsory law tries to define "Reasonable excuses for non-attendance". The following are some of the provisions actually made in the Acts :

- (1) where the child is prevented from attending school by (a) sickness, (b) infirmity or (c) other unavoidable cause ;
- (2) (a) where the child is receiving, otherwise than in an approved school, instruction which in the opinion of the School Board is efficient, or (b) has received from the school a certificate of having already completed his primary education up to standard included in the scheme ;
- (3) where there is no approved school within the distance fixed by the School Board ;
- (4) where after due application, entrance to an approved school has been refused to the child and there is no other approved school to which he can be admitted within the distance fixed (by the School Board), until such time as the parent is notified by the Administrative Officer that the child can be admitted ;
- (5) where there is no approved school in the locality in which instruction is given in the language spoken by the child ;
- (6) where there is no approved school in the locality to which the parent can send the child without exposure to religious instruction to which the parent objects [Bombay (1947), Sec. 33] ;
- (7) any other cause declared by a resolution of the local body concerned to be a reasonable excuse (Madras, Sec 50) ;
- (8) where the School Board has declared that, owing to agricultural operations, children residing in the area under the authority of any Union Board, Union Committee or Panchayat within the jurisdiction of the Board shall be exempt from attendance at a primary school for a period to be specified in the declaration [Bengal (1930), Sec. 60] ;
- (9) that the child, if a boy, is over ten years of age and if a girl, is over nine years of age at the time of his or her admission to a primary school and is, in the opinion of the School Attendance Authority, not likely to complete his or her primary education (M.P., Sec. 13) ;
- (10) when the presence of the child is required for attendance upon or treatment of its parents disabled by old age or infirmity ;
- (11) when a child has gone to reside in a foreign territory for a period exceeding six months ;
- (12) when, by reason of the child having lost either of its parents or having parents who go out for labour, it is absolutely necessary for the child to remain at home to take care of its younger brothers or sisters and for the purpose of cooking, etc. ;
- (13) when a widow has only a boy or a girl and such boy or girl is helpful to the mother in earning wages (Baroda, Sec. 6).

Although the phraseology used may differ from Act to Act, the generally accepted reasonable excuses may be summarised as follows :

- (i) sickness ;
- (ii) infirmity ;
- (iii) child being educated privately in an efficient manner ;
- (iv) the child having completed the prescribed course of primary education ;

- (v) the non-existence of an approved school within a specified distance from the home of the child (The specified distances vary from one to two miles);
- (vi) admission being refused to the child in an approved school (This is a reasonable excuse only until accommodation is offered);
- (vii) the non-existence of an approved school teaching through the mother-tongue of the child;
- (viii) the non-existence of an approved school where the child will not be exposed to a religious instruction to which the parent objects;
- (ix) seasonal needs of agriculture or the economic needs of the family; and
- (x) any other cause which the Attendance Authority may regard as reasonable.

Very few parents ever care to apply for an exemption under these provisions. But it is open to them to claim such exemption at any time and the point whether the parent is entitled to a reasonable excuse can be considered at the time of passing an attendance order (see section 11 for details) or even at the time of prosecution.

6. *Reports of Non-attendance* : A copy of every individual notice to parents is sent to the headmaster of the school to which the child has been directed to attend. If any order of exemption is passed thereon at a later date, a copy of the same is also sent to him. If they fail to turn up in accordance with the notice the headmaster immediately reports the matter to the authorities concerned. Obviously, no legal provision is necessary to serve this end. An executive order or a provision in the rules is generally enough to secure the objective.

7. *Attendance Orders* : On receipt of a report from the headmaster to the effect that a child has failed to attend in accordance with the notice, the next step in the procedure is to pass an *attendance order*—the most pivotal step in the whole process of enforcement. The following provision from the Bombay Act of 1947 shows how an attendance order is ordinarily passed :

- “(i) Where the School Board is satisfied that the parent of any child who is bound under the provisions of Section 32 to cause such child to attend an approved school, has failed to do so, the School Board after giving the parent an opportunity of being heard and after such inquiry as it considers necessary may make an order directing the parent to cause such child to attend an approved school on and from the date which shall be specified in the order.
- (ii) This power may be delegated by the School Board to any of its members or the Administrative Officer or other Officer of the School Board.
- (iii) Any parent aggrieved by an order made under sub-section (1) may, within 30 days from the date of such order, appeal to the Educational Inspector of the Division who may confirm or rescind the order as he deems fit.” (Sec. 34).

It will be seen that there are three important ingredients in this provision :

- (i) the authority to pass the attendance order is definitely specified ;
- (ii) there has to be a failure to cause a child to attend *before* the process under this section can be started; and
- (iii) the parent has to be given an opportunity of being heard *before* a final decision is taken.

These three ingredients are found in all the compulsory laws. But variations are found with regard to the authority to pass attendance orders. The following are some of the authorities charged with this responsibility :

1. The School Board, any of its members, or its officers.
2. A School Attendance Authority specially appointed for the purpose in every area of compulsion. (It consists of some officials and some non-officials resident in the area).
3. School Committees appointed for the purpose.
4. A Magistrate.
5. An officer of the Education Department.

It is here that the procedure often breaks down. In the Bengal Act, for instance, the procedure is made very elaborate because an attendance order is to be passed by a Magistrate *after* an attendance committee has enquired into the case. Sec. 62 of the Bengal Act of 1930 says :

"(1) If an Attendance Committee is satisfied that a guardian has without reasonable excuse and after receiving a written caution from the Attendance Committee, failed to comply with the provisions of Section 59, it shall send a written complaint against the guardian to a Magistrate having jurisdiction.

(2) The Magistrate, if satisfied that the complaint is well founded, shall direct the guardian to cause the child in respect of whom the complaint was preferred to attend a primary school from a date to be specified in such direction."

Such elaborate procedures defeat their own purpose and it would be desirable to confer this authority on any local committee or body like the *Village Panchayat* on any competent non-official who can be persuaded to take enough interest in the cause, or on any touring Government official who visits the area frequently. He may act independently or preferably in collaboration with a local committee.

8. *Prosecutions* : If a parent violates the attendance order, he is liable to prosecution. The authority to decide upon the prosecution is sometimes vested in a committee and sometimes in an officer. The former causes delays and difficulties and the latter method is, therefore, to be preferred.

If the prosecution is decided upon, the case goes up before a Magistrate (or a body like the *Village Panchayat* authorised to try such cases) or before a person specially authorised in this behalf.

The following table shows the authorities empowered to try cases under the Compulsory Education Acts in different States of India :

Act	Urban Area	Rural Areas
1. The Assam Primary Education Act, 1947.	Magistrate	Magistrate
2. The Baroda Education Act, 1926.	(1) The A or B Class Municipality (2) City <i>Vahivatdar</i> for Baroda city	The <i>Village Panchayat</i>
3. The Bengal Primary Education Act, 1919.	Magistrate	..
4. The Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930.	..	Magistrate

Act	Urban Area	Rural Areas
5. The Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Act, 1919.	Magistrate	Magistrate
6. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.	Magistrate	A person empowered in this behalf by the District Magistrate.
7. The Central Provinces Primary Education Act, 1920.	Magistrate	Magistrate
8. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920.	Magistrate	..
9. The Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920.	District Education Officer	District Education Officer
10. The Punjab Primary Education Act, 1940.	Magistrate	Magistrate
11. The United Provinces District School Boards Primary Education Act, 1926.	..	Magistrate, or Bench of Magistrates
12. The United Provinces Primary Education Act, 1919.	Magistrate	..

It will be seen from the above table that, in so far as the urban areas are concerned, the authority to try cases under the compulsory education act is generally vested in magistrates. There are only two exceptions to this rule. In Madras, the District Education Officer is authorised; and in Baroda, the authority to try such cases was vested either in municipalities or in the *Vahivatdar*—a post which is equivalent to that of a *Mamlatdar*, a revenue officer who is also a magistrate. In principle, it is wrong to authorise the municipality to try such cases. The Municipality which is responsible for enforcement of compulsory education and is, on that account, the prosecuting party. It is, therefore, not desirable to vest it with the magisterial power as well. The Baroda precedent, therefore, can hardly be recommended for adoption elsewhere. Similarly, the Madras idea of authorising educational officers to try such cases will not commend itself to everyone. It has certain obvious advantages. The educational officers are generally enthusiastic about the schemes, know all the implications of the situation and ordinarily dispose off the cases more quickly than other magistrates. On the other hand, their time is often wasted in putting legal formalities across instead of looking after their legitimate part of educational guidance. All things considered, it would be better to relieve the officers of the Education Department of these judicial responsibilities. In urban areas, therefore, compulsory education cases could preferably be tried by magistrates only. This is not inconvenient either from the administrative or financial point of view. In rural areas, the situation is materially different. A study of the above table shows that in several rural areas, magistrates are required to try such cases. This raises several administrative difficulties because magistrates are not easily available in villages. In the interest of compulsory education, an authority to try cases must exist in every village or at least in every group of conveniently situated villages. This can be secured in a number of ways. In Baroda, for instance, such cases were tried by *Village Panchayats*. In several other States, a similar provision is made, not in the Primary Education Acts but in the law governing *Panchayats*.

This measure will go a great way no doubt, but today there are no *Panchayats* in a large majority of villages. In such cases, the provision made in the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, will be of immense use. Here, the district magistrate can empower any person found suitable to try such cases. It is, therefore, possible to create an agency to try such cases in every village or a group of villages where *Panchayats* do not exist.

The following table shows the fines which can be imposed under Compulsory Education Acts :

Act	Fine for the first offence	Fine for subsequent offences	Fine for repeated offences
1. The Assam Primary Education Act, 1947.	As prescribed by the law.
2. The Baroda Compulsory Act, 1926.	As. 8/-	A fine upto Rs. 5/-.	Fine not less than a rupee and not more than Rs. 5/- for every child.
3. The Bengal Primary Education Act, 1919.	Not exceeding Rs. 5/-	Nil.	Not exceeding Re. 1/- for each day.
4. The Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930.	A fine extending to Rs. 50/-	Nil.	Nil.
5. The Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Act, 1919.	Rs. 2	Rs. 10/-	Nil.
6. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.	Rs. 2	Nil.	As. 8 per day.
7. The Central Provinces Primary Education Act, 1920.	Extending to Rs. 2/-	Extending to Rs. 10/-.	Nil.
8. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920.	A fine not exceeding Rs. 5/-.	Nil.	Nil.
9. The Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920.	A penalty not being less than such minimum and not exceeding such maximum as may be prescribed.	Nil.	Nil.
10. The Punjab Primary Education Act, 1940.	Not exceeding Rs. 15/-	Nil.	Nil.
11. The United Provinces District Boards Primary Education Act, 1926.	Not exceeding Rs. 5/-	Nil.	Re. 1/- for every day.
12. The United Provinces Primary Education Act, 1919.	Not exceeding Rs. 5/-	Nil.	Re. 1/- for every day.

It will be seen from the above table that in some Acts, the penalty is left to be prescribed by rules. This is not a good procedure and should be discouraged. The maximum fine to which a person is liable is too important a matter to be left for decision to the executive orders of the Government and in the fitness of things, the legislature must lay it down specifically.

The Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930, prescribes the highest penalty—Rs. 50/-. Next comes the Punjab which prescribes the maximum penalty of Rs. 15/-. These amounts have been prescribed probably because both these Acts make no distinction between the first offence and repeated offences. Very probably, the assumption is that small fines only will be imposed for the first offences and the bigger fines in cases of repeated non-attendance.

In all the other Acts, the fine for the first offence is generally small and varies from annas eight to rupees five. A penalty of rupees five is prescribed in Baroda for subsequent offences while, under the same circumstances, the Madhya Pradesh and Bihar and Orissa Acts prescribe a penalty of Rs. 10/-. The *de diem* fines are most effective in obstinate cases and have been provided for in the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, the Bengal Primary Education Act, 1919, the U.P. Primary Education Act, 1919, the U.P. (District Boards) Primary Education Act, 1926 and the Baroda Compulsory Education Act, 1926.

9. *Penalty for Inadequate Attendance* : The procedure discussed above will be applicable to cases where a child has not yet been enrolled in a primary school and is coming under compulsion for the first time. In addition to this, there is another offence under the compulsory law, viz. the failure of the child to be in regular attendance at school after his name has been enrolled.

For this purpose, the Primary Education Acts empower the local bodies on whom the responsibility for enforcing the compulsory education rests, to frame attendance bylaws or regulations. For example, the Bombay Act of 1947 defines the expression "to attend an approved school" as "being present for instruction at such school on such days and at such time and for such periods on each day as may be required under the regulations framed by the School Board." Similar provisions exist in all Acts, the only difference being about the authority to frame the regulations. In areas where local bodies have no control over education, this authority is naturally vested in the Government. In other cases, it vests in the local body because attendance is a matter which has to be adjusted to local conditions ; but approval of the Government is generally required to the regulations because certain common policies will have to be maintained in all areas.

If a child fails to attend as required by the attendance regulations, the headmaster concerned sends a report to the attendance authority and this is regarded as a report of non-attendance—the fifth stage in the procedure described above. Thereafter, the procedure for the two types of offence is just the same. If an attendance order has not been passed earlier, the procedure for the sixth stage is gone through and an attendance order is passed and a prosecution is launched, if it is not complied with. But if an attendance order has already been passed in the case of the child, a prosecution may be launched straightaway if he fails to be present at the school in accordance with the regulations.

10. *Penalty for Employment of Children of School-going Age* : All Compulsory Education Acts make it an offence to employ a child liable to compulsion in a manner which will interfere with his education. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, for example, contains the following provision :

"Whoever knowingly takes into his employment, either on his own behalf or on behalf of any other person, any child (to whom the Act applies), so as to interfere with the education or instruction of such child shall, on conviction, be liable to a fine not exceeding twenty-five rupees." (Section 36).

The following table summarises the different penalties prescribed in the Compulsory Acts for the employment of a child liable to compulsion :

Act	Penalty
1. The Assam Primary Education Act, 1947	Nil.
2. The Bengal Primary Education Act, 1919	Not exceeding Rs. 25/-.
3. The Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930	Not exceeding Rs. 25/-.
4. The Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Act, 1919	Extending to Rs. 25/-.
5. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947	Not exceeding Rs. 25/-.
6. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920	Not exceeding Rs. 25/-.
7. The Central Provinces Primary Education Act, 1920	Extending to Rs. 25.
8. The Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920	Nil.
9. The Punjab Primary Education Act, 1940	Nil.
10. The United Provinces District Boards Primary Education Act, 1926.	Not exceeding Rs. 25.
11. The United Provinces Primary Education Act, 1919	Not exceeding Rs. 25.

It is hardly necessary to urge the importance of penalising the employment of children in an area where compulsory education has been introduced. Unless some such provision is made, school attendance is bound to suffer and compulsory education is not likely to be successful and yet the Assam, the Madras, the Punjab and the Baroda Acts do not make any such provision. All the other Acts provide for the penalty of Rs. 25. The general presumption is that a person who employs a child of compulsory age is guilty of a greater offence, and therefore, needs a more severe punishment. On this assumption the fine of Rs. 25 is quite justifiable in all cases except that of Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930, where the parent himself is liable to a fine of Rs. 50/-.

APPENDIX B(7)

Ward Committees in Big Towns and Cities

The following extract from the Report on "Some Educational and Administrative Problems of Primary Education in the City of Bombay" will show the need and manner of organising ward committees for the administration of primary education in a big town or city :

23. In the Bye-laws of the Schools Committee, under Section 461 of the Municipal Act framed as far back as 1917, a provision has been made under Bye-law No. 7(4) for the appointment of Committees for each of the 7 Wards (A to G) of the City. They are called 'Ward Local Committees'. Each Committee consists of sixteen members of both sexes residing in the City (and not necessarily in the Ward itself) of whom four are Councillors and twelve are Non-Councillors. The Committees are to be appointed by the Schools Committee 'as soon as practicable after its election' and they are to function till a new Schools Committee elects new Committees. The Ward Local Committee elects its Chairman and Honorary Secretary every year. A clerk from the Schools Committee's Office helps each Committee in its clerical work on a small allowance as he is expected to do this work outside office hours. The Committee selects for its business one of the schools in the ward.

24. Although the Bye-law No. 7(4) was framed in 1917, for about ten years the School Committee did not give effect to it. They were, however, directed by the Corporation in the year 1926 (Corporation Resolution No. 9020 of 25th June 1926) to appoint the local committees as required under the Bye-law. The Schools Committee thereupon appointed the Ward Local Committees for the first time in the year 1927, and sanctioned rules for their guidance (vide Schools Committee's Manual 1947, Appendix I, (A) and (B) pages 217 to 221).

25. The main object of the appointment of such committees by the Schools Committee is summarised in Rule No. 15 (vide Manual 1947, page 220) :

"The general function of local committees shall be that of serving as useful links between parents and school authorities". The committees are expected to cooperate with the Schools Committee in their general work of administration and their duties in this direction are specified in Rule 15 (a) to (h), Manual, pages 220 and 221. Among those duties, the following seem to be important :

- (1) "To induce parents to send pupils to the schools regularly".
- (2) "To see that the physical well-being of children is secured by persuading the guardians to take advantage of the medical inspection service and the Municipal dispensaries for free treatment."
- (3) "To exert their good offices in collecting special funds from the philanthropic public for getting up Prize Distribution Ceremonies, Exhibitions, Education Weeks, Fresh Air Excursions, for providing free lunch, free spectacles, clean clothes and other useful assistance to needy pupils" and
- (4) "Generally to suggest methods which may improve the Schools Committee's administration, its methods of teaching and modes of conducting the affairs of the schools on modern lines."

26. The beneficial activities of these committees depend upon the enthusiasm which a member or group of members may evince. Naturally, therefore, the degree of their activity varies. On the whole, these ward committees have been of help in bringing to the notice of the School Committee the deficiencies in the

requirements of schools and affording at times facilities for recreation, etc., to school children. It is a practice to convene occasional conferences of all the Ward Local Committees under the auspices of the Schools Committee where views are freely exchanged and the discussions go a great way in acquainting the Schools Committee of the public opinion on several matters regarding the administration of schools. The members of the committees also help in various ways in the propaganda work carried on by the Schools Committee.

27. These Ward Local Committees have, no doubt, been serving as links between the parents and the Schools Committee. Considering the great increase in the number of schools and school children since the inception of these Committees in 1927, it would be desirable to effect a thorough change in the constitution, duties and jurisdiction of these committees, so as to make them far more effective agents for the betterment of schools and particularly in the matter of bringing to school non-attending children. This last function is greatly in need of such an agency which can influence the defaulting guardians more successfully than the official agency now working under the Special Attendance Officer. Suggestions regarding the reconstitution of these committees on more effective lines are made in the paragraphs that follow :

45. Before suggesting an effective re-organisation and enlargement of the present machinery engaged for enforcement of attendance, it would be better to note briefly the methods employed in some other countries which have been able to make enforcement of compulsion a success. The most notable feature of the systems relating to the general administration and also for enforcement of compulsion is the division of a city into a number of administrative divisions, each of them being placed under an efficient machinery of its own. A brief description of the systems as they prevail in some of the great cities outside India are given below :

London—For administrative purposes, London is divided into 12 districts in each of which there is a divisional office and a District Inspector is attached to each divisional office. The city is further divided for the purpose of effective enforcement of compulsion into 60 sub-divisions based on the 60 county electoral divisions. One or more local Attendance Sub-Committees are appointed to assist in the enforcement of school attendance (See Rules of the Education Committee, London County Council, 1932-Rule 62 and 63). Each Local Attendance Sub-Committee consists of six members. They include, among others, managers of Council and Non-Council Schools (see Rule 63). The Council's elementary schools are arranged in groups each comprising of not more than four schools and are placed under the care of managers. As far as possible, the groups are so formed that the schools in any one group are within the limits of one county electoral division.

Manchester and Edinburgh—The City of Manchester is divided into 33 school districts for the purpose of educational planning (see 'The Development Plan'—Manchester Education Committee—1947), and the City of Edinburgh is divided for that purpose into five areas and 13 groups (Edinburgh Education Scheme—1947).

New York City—New York is divided into 46 districts for the purpose of administration and supervision of the school system and into 13 Attendance Districts for the purpose of the enforcement of compulsion (Government of the City of New York—1915—pages 337 and 387).

Berlin—The educational administration in Berlin (School Union) is divided into districts each with its own school deputation. The school deputation is a committee and its duties, among others include general supervision and development of elementary education and enforcement of school attendance laws. In

addition to these district deputations, Berlin has a Central Deputation administering all branches of education (Studies in Comparative Education; Kandel—1933, pages 291 and 292).

Tokyo—Tokyo divides its jurisdiction into 35 sections in connection with educational affairs. The sections which are called school sections deal with educational affairs in their own limits (Education in Tokyo published by the Tokyo Municipal Office, 1937, page 31).

Shanghai—The Shanghai Municipality has a population of about 40 laes. The Municipal Bureau of Education controls the education in the whole of the City. The City is, however, divided into districts which form administrative units (Education in Shanghai, published by the Bureau of Education, Shanghai—1947). The division of a city into several administrative units for the purpose of educational administration seems to be a common feature of Chinese cities.

56. Calcutta and Madras Corporations—Calcutta—In the City of Calcutta, the Corporation has introduced compulsion in one Ward, i.e., in Ward No. IX out of 32 wards of the City.

The procedure adopted in the enforcement of compulsion is briefly as follows :

Under the Bengal Primary Education Act of 1919, the Corporation has appointed a 'School Committee' for Ward No. IX for the enforcement of compulsion of all boys between the ages of 6 and 10. This Committee consists of all members (six) of the Primary Education Standing Committee of the Corporation (ex-officio), the District Inspector of Schools, Calcutta (Government Officer, Ex-Officio) and at least one resident of Calcutta experienced in education. The Education Officer of the Corporation acts as its Secretary and executive officer to the Committee.

The Committee arranges to take census of boys of compulsory age (6 to 10) in the area of the ward, maintains register of such children and revises it every year. It looks after the attendance of boys under compulsion. Guardians of boys not attending schools are notified that legal action would be taken against them if they failed to send their wards to school. Cases of defaulters are reported by the Secretary of the Committee, i.e., the Education Officer of the Corporation to the School Committee. The Committee may grant exemption to deserving cases under Section 8 of the Education Act. In the extreme cases of default, legal action is taken.

57. Madras.—The Municipal area of Madras is now under compulsion for boys and girls of school age (6 to 11). For purposes of Municipal election, the City is divided into 40 electoral divisions. For the purpose of enforcement of compulsion six Attendance Committees, four for boys' schools and two for girls' schools, are constituted. Each of these committees consists of Heads of all elementary schools in the area assigned to that committee and some non-official members, nominated by the Director of Public Instruction in consultation with the Commissioner, who is the executive head of all municipal departments including Education Department. The Deputy Inspector of Schools in the case of boys and the Sub-Assistant Inspectress in the case of girls (both are Government officers) are ex-officio Chairman of the committees. The Corporation Supervisors of the respective Ranges function as Secretaries of the committees. Each committee meets periodically and scrutinises the preliminary lists of defaulters submitted by the heads of schools, confirms them and forwards them to the District Educational Officer (Government Officer) for action. This Government Officer is responsible for the enforcement of the provision of Section 49 of the Act and he imposes a penalty as required under the Act and the Rules. The enumeration or census of school-going age children is also arranged under the auspices of the Attendance Committees.

DIVISION OF THE CITY INTO ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

58. From the accounts given about the systems of school administration prevailing in some of the great cities, it would be clear that division of the city into several units facilitates the administration of schools and the control over attendance of children.

60. The division of the city into smaller units has also another aspect, which deserves serious consideration. Such division facilitates the process of enforcement of compulsion in various ways as has been shown in the account of practices prevailing elsewhere. As ways and means to be adopted for enforcement of compulsion have hardly anything to do either with the languages used in schools or with their instructional side, no difficulties are likely to arise if the Bombay City adopts the system of maintaining smaller separate units for that purpose. The advantages of such a system are many and it will certainly give satisfactory results.

ATTENDANCE DISTRICTS.

61. The units into which the city is to be divided for the purpose of enforcing better attendance may conveniently be called "Attendance Districts" in conformity with the practice prevailing elsewhere. What should be their number? The districts should be smaller but they must be at the same time manageable economically. They should be definitely demarked and should, if possible, have a popularly acceptable. The most convenient way to mark out the districts is to follow the method adopted by the Corporation in sub-dividing the original eleven wards of the city into 34 electoral wards or divisions. Each of these has a definitely marked area and name assigned to it. It would, therefore, be desirable to take these electoral wards as our basis. The London County Council maintains its census registers of school children according to the county electoral divisions (Vide London Statistics; Volume 34, page 220) and one or more Attendance Committees are appointed for each of its 60 electoral divisions (see Rule 63—Rules of the London Education Committee).

61A. Such a division has an advantage of its own. The numbers of the Corporation who are elected from their respective electoral divisions will be able to take interest in the progress of schools in their wards and particularly in the important problem of attendance of children. Education is one of those social services in which sympathy and cooperation of the public are essential for its growth and utility. Such sympathy and cooperation will secure best results, if the representatives of the public help the administration in promoting the welfare of children in general and in maintaining contacts with the parents to secure better attendance in schools. The instructional side should better be left to the administration itself.

DISTRICT COMMITTEES

62. It has already been pointed out (see Paras 23 to 27) that at present there exist what are called Ward Local Committees, seven in number, each assigned to the seven wards of the City. Their constitution and duties and the nature and extent of their work have been already described and it was suggested that in the changed circumstances, they should be re-constituted on more effective lines. That problem will now be considered in its various aspects.

63. It is proposed to change the name of these Ward Local Committees to that of 'District Committees' as each of them will have jurisdiction over a district or over a part of a district, a district being an electoral ward of the City.

NUMBER

64. The straight course would appear to be to give one District Committee to each one of the electoral divisions, which are 34 in number. (But on a closer consideration of the area, population, number of schools both municipal and aided, number of children attending and non-attending according to the estimated population of each district, it is found necessary further to divide most of the electoral wards or districts and give each district or sub-district a separate District Committee. If there be more than one District Committee assigned to one electoral division, they will be numbered as District Committee No. 1, No. 2 or No. 3. No district need be given more than three committees. On a scrutiny of the requirements of each district based on the above-mentioned consideration, it is proposed to constitute, in all, 75 district committees.

COMPOSITION

65. General—In the composition of the existing seven Ward Local Committees there is a prescribed uniformity. Each committee has four Councillors and twelve Non-Councillors. In the composition of the proposed district committees, no uniformity in the number of members has been observed. The number is made to depend upon the needs of each district. In Appendix C is shown the number of committees to be appointed for each electoral district. As it has not been possible to demarcate the parts into which an electoral district has to be divided for the purpose of assigning to it a committee of its own, the total number of members for a district and the total number of committees the district should have, are given in the Appendix. It would be necessary to scrutinise the needs of each such district and to divide it into two or three convenient sections or parts. The total number of members assigned to the district as a whole will have to be distributed into two or three groups and each group assigned to one section or part of the district. The total number of members for all the 75 district committees comes to 938. Thus the average number for each committee comes to about 13. Details are given in Appendix C.

66. Councillor Members—All the councillor members elected from their respective electoral districts of the city should be members of the District Committee or committees of their own electoral district. If the number of councillor members is greater than the number of committees for a district, it may happen that one committee will have only one councillor member, while another will have more than one. It is understood that every District Committee shall have at least one councillor member. The object of inviting all the 106 councillor members elected from the 34 electoral wards to be members of one or other District Committee is to give them an opportunity to serve their own districts in the educational advancement. If it is granted that education serves the most powerful lever to lift up the social and economic status of the people, there is no other more fruitful field than education, in which a councillor can serve his constituency in an individual capacity. It may be noted that while in the present composition of the seven Ward Local Committees, only 28 councillor members have a place, in the scheme now proposed, all the 106 councillors elected from the wards will have an opportunity to serve the cause of education. In the above arrangement, all the 106 councillors elected from the 34 electoral wards are assigned membership of the District Committees. There are, however, eight councillors who are elected by constituencies other than the electoral wards of the city. Their services will be equally useful to the cause of education in the city. It is, therefore, proposed that they should be assigned a seat on a District Committee of their choice so that they may have an opportunity along with their brother councillors to serve the cause of education in the city. As it is not possible to assign a definite district to these eight councillors, the

Appendix does not show their number in any of the 34 districts. At the time of the actual composition of the committees, each of these eight councillors will have to be assigned to a District Committee of his choice and the number of councillor members of that committee will accordingly be increased to that extent. It is strongly hoped that if the councillors take personal interest in the educational needs of the people of the city, however restricted the sphere may be, the collective experience of the councillors is bound to be reflected in the Corporation's general attitude towards the problem of primary education in the city. The problem has assumed such magnitude owing to the present unexpected abnormal increase in the population of the city that it cannot be satisfactorily solved unless all councillors realise the tremendous difficulties lying in its way and try to remove them by concerted action.

67. Non-Councillor Members—It has been proposed in the scheme of the district committees that the number of non-councillor members should ordinarily be three times the number of councillor members. This arrangement is in conformity with the existing scheme of the present ward local committees. In view of the proposal that is made to give representation to the head teachers both of the municipal and aided schools, the proposed number of non-councillor members from the public on the district committees seems to be sufficient. Their total number for the 75 committees will come to 318. The existing ward committees have 84 non-councillors as members. Under the proposed arrangement, the number will be raised to nearly four times.

68. One of the most important principles of school administration that is now generally accepted everywhere is to secure for it the voluntary services of men and women from the general public, who can devote some time for such work and thus supplement the services rendered by the paid staff. These men and women who may spare some time are mainly meant to help the school administration in securing better attendance and in affording better amenities for the general welfare of school children. The instructional side of the schools, i.e., the curriculum, teaching, its methods and results and allied matters should better be left to experts and to educational officers. The main duty of these members is to serve as a link between the parents or guardians and the schools. It is, therefore, necessary that they should be selected not so much on account of their educational qualifications but because of their proved voluntary service in the cause of social uplift of the community. Some of them shall have to be drawn from amongst persons who are leaders in their own way and carry influence over the working classes residing in their respective districts. Such persons although not educationally advanced may be of great use to influence the parents to send their children to school and keep them regularly at school. They will also be helpful in removing misunderstanding among the public when the school authorities will have to resort to prosecution of defaulters after persuasion has failed. It is sometimes said that persons who are invited to render purely voluntary service in the cause of social uplift do not fulfil cherished expectations. While admitting the force of this statement, it must be pointed out that the defect lies in not selecting proper type of persons and in the nature and scope of work assigned to them. In the City of Bombay, it is not impossible at all to have the requisite number of persons, men and women, who would devote some spare time for the welfare of school children, particularly if the schools are situated near about their residence and if they get some effective voice in the field of work entrusted to them. In order to achieve these objectives, it has been proposed in the scheme of the district committees that there should be one paid person attached to a district committee to serve as a link between the Committee and the school authorities. This person will keep himself constantly in touch with the members of his district committee and take their help as and when required and report to the authorities their suggestions and views in respect of attendance and welfare of school children.

69. Head Teachers—In the composition of a district committee, a definite place is assigned to head teachers of the schools in the district. This step is, no doubt, a distinct departure from the provisions of the existing scheme of the seven ward local committees, which excludes the teachers from its membership. It is strongly felt that direct participation of teachers is the *sine qua non* of the successful working of any scheme that is devised to improve the conditions of attendance and welfare of school children. By the very nature of their duties, they are interested in these objectives and given the place on the district committees, they will be able to make the best use of the cooperation and help of other members. It may be argued that by getting a place on the district committees, teachers will be given an opportunity to sit in judgment on their superiors. But a scrutiny of the duties assigned to the district committees will show that this fear is unfounded. Problems relating to finance, discipline, instruction and allied matters which must be under the control of the authorities are excluded from the duties and functions of the district committees. It has been proposed in the scheme that the Head of every municipal school in a district should be a member of the district committee. As for aided primary schools, their representation on each district committee is restricted to about one-third of the number of schools in the district. The law in connection with compulsory education demands that count must be taken of children of school-going age in such schools also so far as their attendance is concerned. The names of children in aided primary schools must be entered in Census Registers which are to be kept up to date by frequent inquiry. The regularity of attendance of children in these schools also has to be supervised by the municipal authorities. The representation of aided schools on the district committees will also serve another purpose. In some cases it may be found that a non-attending child may find an aided school more convenient to go to than a municipal school in the locality. In such a case, the child will have to be admitted into that aided school for which full or partial compensation for fee will have to be given to the school concerned. This will be a better method of tackling the problem of attendance of some children than of forcing them to join a municipal school which owing to distance and road difficulties may be most inconvenient. It is highly desirable from several points of view to bring the aided schools into a closer contact with the municipal schools and also with those who may be helping the cause of education as members of district committees, for many of the problems which a municipal or aided school has to face are common and nothing but good will result from such a closer contact between both the types of schools.

70. It has been already said that every head of a municipal school is to be given a place on the committee of his district. Every municipal school has a definite part to play in an organisation that may be set up for bringing non-attending children to school, establishing their attendance and devising schemes for their welfare. It would therefore, be not only invidious but even harmful to a certain extent to select some heads and leave others outside. The practice followed in Madras already referred to with regard to the composition of "Attendance Committees" proves the utility of giving representation to heads of schools on the "Attendance Committees." Such a provision is a common feature of schemes for the enforcement of compulsion in the Province of Madras as required under Rule 7 of the Rules framed under Section 44 of the Madras Elementary Education Act of 1920. The attendance committees appointed in the city of Madras for the enforcement of compulsory education include not only non-official members but also the heads of all elementary schools in their areas assigned to their committees.

DUTIES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE DISTRICT COMMITTEES

85. The object of the division of the city into 75 districts instead of into 34 districts, each based on an electoral division, is to make the district a manageable

unit in respect of securing better attendance and in promoting welfare of school children. The idea behind the formation of such small units is to secure local initiative, interest and cooperation. The members of the district committees must be thoroughly acquainted with the people of the locality and their educational needs. They must be able to influence the people by direct personal contact so as to arouse them to contribute collectively towards the well-being of school children in their own district.

86. The line of work on which the members of a district committee can help the administration in securing better attendance of school children has been already described. But better attendance is not the only objective of a good system of schooling. The physical well-being of children, providing the needy children with requisites for their schooling and arranging for their physical and mental recreation are objects which demand equally serious attention. The public of a district through the efforts of the members of its district committee should contribute their mite to the fulfilment of these objectives and thus supplement the efforts of the Corporation in that direction. The money value of such contributions is not the main consideration, but the arousing of a social spirit in the public is the object to be aimed at. Every one who can afford to bring relief and pleasure to the children should be persuaded to take part in measures which district committees may adopt to promote the welfare of children. Of course, the Corporation's contribution for such purposes will be always there in substantial measure, but the interest shown by the public in such measures has its own value which cannot be measured in money alone.

87. Practice of collecting funds from the public for the welfare of school children has been a common feature of school administration in other countries. In London particularly, the 'collection and distribution of funds for the benefit of children in a public ELEMENTARY school or for objects outside the school is permitted'. (See General Regulations of the London County Council, No. 77, Page 36). The Care (School) Committees, one for each elementary school in London, are appointed for the purpose of looking after the welfare of school children. 'They are expected to familiarise themselves with the home conditions of pupils in elementary school, to advise parents on matters affecting the welfare of their children, to direct them to charitable organisations and in other ways to provide such information and guidance as will enable the children to profit from their attendance at school. They have established clubs and other means of recreation, organised play centres and vacation schools, and advised on the choice of employment. In general, they perform the functions of paid social workers and of visiting teachers in the United States' (Studies in Comparative Education : Kandel : Page 254). These Care Committees group themselves into local associations and their duties, among others, are to collect voluntary subscriptions, to arrange and manage the feeding centres, to discuss the methods governing the selection of necessitous children and generally to deal with questions affecting the physical welfare of children.

87A. Incidentally, it is worthwhile to note the various agencies of voluntary workers which function in London in large number for supplementing the work of school authorities :

(1) A Committee of Managers for Schools—

A committee of what are called 'Managers' is appointed under the Education Act. For each school or a group of schools not exceeding four, is appointed a body of managers, consisting of 12 to 18 in number. The functions of the managers are mainly advisory and include no financial control except for voluntary funds raised for specific purposes. They may visit schools and have access to the records. They are expected to advise the authorities on matters

affecting school premises and equipment. They serve in the main as a link between the school and public on one side and between the school and the Committee on the other. In general they act as patrons of the school and interest themselves in promoting the welfare of children (Kandel, Page 254 ; also Rules of the Education Committee, London County Council, Page 36).

(2) Local Attendance Sub-Committees—

Mention of these committees and their duties has already been made (Para 45).

(3) Care (School) Committees—

Mention of these committees and their functions has also been made above.

57B. The strength of the voluntary agencies may be realised from the following statement—

“In all, about 10,000 men and women give voluntary assistance in connection with the administration and control by the Council of the London Education Service”—(The Year Book of Education, London, 1932, Page 29).

88. In the scheme of the district committees proposed to be appointed for the city of Bombay, an attempt is made to combine the main duties and functions of these three types of committees obtaining in the education system of London, because it is felt that the system of school administration in the city of Bombay has not reached the stage which may justify the appointment of more than one committee of voluntary agents to supplement the work of the educational authorities. It should also be noted that most of the duties and functions which are to be assigned to the district committees and which are mentioned above at various stages are already included in the duties and functions of the existing seven Ward Local Committee (Vide Schools Committee's Manual, 1947, page 220-221). The scheme of the district committees now proposed, however, brings about vital changes which consist in restricting the jurisdiction of a committee to a smaller unit, so as to make its working more effective and by giving opportunities to a far larger number of citizens so that local interest and initiative may play a greater part in the promotion of welfare of school children.

APPENDIX B(8)

Separation of Inspection from Administration

The separation of the administrative functions in primary education from those of inspection has its advantages as well as disadvantages. Its principal advantages are the following :

(1) It enables the State Government, through its officers, to determine, from time to time, how the large funds allocated by it to primary education are being spent by the local authorities ; after all, the State Government contributes the largest share of the total expenditure on primary education and it should, therefore, have the right to watch over the expenditure of its grants through its own officers.

(2) It provides for a regular assessment of the work of local authorities—an activity which is of great administrative utility to the local bodies themselves.

(3) It provides the system of double-check in educational work which is so vital to progress in democratic administration. The officers of the local authority provide the internal audit and check on the work of the schools while the inspecting officers of the Department function as the *external* audit and check and supplement the work of the officers of local bodies. Thus, tendencies to complacency are curbed materially and the possibility of developing "blind pockets" in administration is reduced to a minimum.

On the other hand, the measure has the following disadvantages :

(1) It increases costs to some extent because a slight duplication of work is almost unavoidable.

The total expenditure on administration and inspection under this plan is always greater than when both administration and inspection are combined in one agency.

(2) The task of coordinating the activities of the local authority officers as well as those of the Department presents some difficulty.

But it may be said that these disadvantages are more than compensated for by the advantages. The experience of England where the system has been in vogue for nearly 50 years shows that coordination is not very difficult and that the two agencies can be made to work smoothly to the advantage of each other. Secondly, the small increase in cost is negligible if the gain in efficiency is taken into account. On the whole, therefore, we feel that there are strong administrative as well as educational grounds for the adoption of the system we have recommended here.

APPENDIX B(9)

Relationship between the Constitution of a Local Body and the Extent of its Authority in Education

The extent of authority which may be delegated to a local body depends, among other factors, on its constitution also. The main object of employing a local agency in administration is to supplement the work of the State Government by the 'local knowledge, initiative, responsibility and enthusiasm' which a local body can provide. It, therefore, goes without saying that the extent of authority which can be delegated to a local body in the administration of primary education will also depend upon the constitution of the body concerned, i.e., upon its nearness to the public and the extent to which it can bring in local knowledge, initiative, responsibility and enthusiasm to bear upon the problem under consideration.

A reference to history confirms this general doctrine. In the early years, the local bodies in India were not close to the people because they consisted of nominated members and were dominated by officials. It was, therefore, natural that their authority was very limited. Then started a slow process of reform under which the local bodies were democratised more and more and the official control over them (both from within and from without) was reduced to a minimum. As a result, the local bodies came nearer and nearer to the people and thus began to bring in local enthusiasm and knowledge to a greater and greater extent. Consequently, their authority was continually enlarged in proportion in all spheres inclusive of that of primary education.

It would, therefore, be wrong to consider the problem of the authority of local bodies without reference to their constitution. The closer a local body is to the people, the greater will be the extent to which it can rope in local enterprise to further the cause of primary education and the greater will be the justification to devolve larger powers upon it. A good illustration for this is found in U.P. where a general reform of the local bodies resulted in improving the administration of primary education also. It is, therefore, recommended that in States where local bodies have not been fully democratised as yet, steps for the reconstitution of local bodies may be considered side by side with the development of primary education on the lines recommended in this report.

APPENDIX B (10)

Educational Balance Sheets of Part 'A' States as They Stood in 1921-22 and 1945-46.

(This is an Extract from the unpublished thesis of Dr. Madhuri Shah for the Ph.D. degree of the University of Bombay.)

It is not an easy matter to compare the educational position in one area with that in another. It is an intriguing and difficult problem ; but fortunately it has recently received considerable attention in the U.S.A. and American educators have evolved six different criteria for this purpose¹. On the basis of these, they prepare a comparative statement which is popularly called the *educational balance-sheet* of the area concerned. If such balance-sheets are prepared for two different areas, it becomes possible to compare their educational position scientifically and accurately. It is, therefore, necessary (a) to understand the different criteria for preparing the balance-sheet (b) to modify them to suit the available data regarding Indian states and (c) to prepare balance-sheets for the different Indian states from time to time. This is the only way in which the educational advance of one part of the country may be compared with another.

(a) *Criteria for the Preparation of Balance-sheet*:—The six objective criteria evolved by American educationists for measuring the educational performance of the individual states are :—

- (i) accomplishment in education ;
- (ii) ability to support education ;
- (iii) degree in which accomplishment is commensurate with ability ;
- (iv) degree of educational effort ;
- (v) efficiency of educational effort ; and
- (vi) educational level of the adult population.

(i) *Accomplishment in Education*:—Obviously, the best test to measure accomplishment in education is to consider the total population at school. But mere total population may give a wrong idea because the population at school may vary from one stage of education to another. American educationists, therefore, have fixed definite standards of attainments at five stages as shown below :

Primary Education:—Accomplishment in primary education is measured by the number of children who complete the primary course. In the U.S.A., primary education is compulsory for a period of eight years at least. Therefore, it is laid down that 97.5 per cent. of the children of compulsory age (6—14 years) must not only be enrolled in schools, but must also complete the eight-year course. The margin of 2.5 per cent is allowed for mentally handicapped or defective children only. On this basis, the accomplishment of any particular State is measured by the ratio of the number of children who complete the eighth grade of primary schools to the total population in the age-group of six to fourteen years.

¹*Hughes and Lancelot*:—*Education—America's Magic*. This interesting book gives a detailed description of these criteria.

Secondary Education:—Here, accomplishment is measured in two ways, by comparing the total enrolment in secondary schools and by considering the number of pupils who complete the secondary course. The American assumptions are that 95 per cent. of the children in the age-group of 14 to 17 years must be studying in secondary schools and that 70 per cent. of the children aged 17 years must complete the full secondary course. The accomplishment of individual states is measured in relation to these standards.

University Education:—Here also, two standards are laid down : it is expected that 27.5 per cent. of the youths in the age-group of 18 to 21 years should proceed to the university and that 13 per cent. of the population aged 21 years should be graduates. The accomplishment of individual states is measured in relation to these two standards.

The results of the comparisons of the accomplishment of an individual State under each of these five heads are then combined and the final accomplishment of the state is arrived at on an average basis. For instance, take the following figures for the State of Utah :—

Accomplishment in primary education	99.5
Accomplishment in enrolment in secondary schools	96.8
Accomplishment in completion of secondary course	91.4
Accomplishment in enrolment in colleges	87.2
Accomplishment in graduation	96.9
Overall accomplishment	94.4

(N.B.—It will be seen that the accomplishment under each head is calculated in two stages. Let us assume that the accomplishment at the college graduation level is to be calculated in the given State. Let us further assume that the number of graduates in the given year is X and that the total number of persons aged 21 years in that year is N. Then X/N gives the *actual accomplishment* of the State at the college graduation level. Then the percentage accomplishment of the State is obtained by comparing the actual accomplishment with the standard prescribed (which is 13 per cent). Therefore, the percentage accomplishment in this instance would be given by the formula $X/N \times 100/13$. The percentage accomplishments at all other levels is calculated in a similar manner).

(ii) *Ability to Support Education*:—The second criteria is the ability of the State to support education. One way of doing this would be to compare the national income per head of the population. But it was found that such comparisons involved a statistical defect because the number of children to be educated does not bear the same proportion to total population. In urban areas, incomes per capita are large and the proportion of children to total population is comparatively less. On the other hand, the rural areas show lower incomes and a large proportion of children. A better measure of ability to support education is, therefore, given by considering the national dividend (i.e. the total national income) per child to be educated.

(iii) *Accomplishment in Relation to Ability*:—It is a common thing to find in society that there are rich families in which children are poorly educated and

poor families in which the education of the children is extremely well-cared for. The same phenomenon happens between states as well, and their accomplishments in education are not always found proportional to their abilities to support it. In order to measure this variation, statisticians first calculate the expected percentage of accomplishment (say X) on the basis of the ability to support (say a) in terms of the following formula :

$$X=15.5907-3.8772 a-.0630a$$

The difference between this expected percentage of accomplishment (X) and the percentage accomplishment as calculated under (i) above will give the position of the State concerned under this head.

(iv) *Degree of Educational Effort* : Just as in society we find different families devoting different portions of their incomes to education, the states also show considerable differences in their effort to provide for education. A good measure for calculating the degree of educational effort is given by the following formula :

$$\text{Degree of educational effort} = \frac{\text{Educational expenditure per child} \times 100}{\text{income per child}}$$

(v) *Efficiency of Educational Effort* : It is natural to assume that the efficiency of education will improve in proportion to the increase in educational expenditure ; but this is not always so because the standard of efficiency varies from State to State. In order to measure this variable efficiency, statisticians first calculate the expected accomplishment (say X) in terms of the educational expenditure per child (say e), by the following formula :

$$X=9.6-1.23 e-.0056 e$$

The difference between this expected percentage of accomplishment and that calculated under (i) above gives an indication of the level of efficiency. A positive difference shows high efficiency and the negative, a low one.

(vi) *Educational level of the Adult Population* : This is measured by the average number of years spent in school by an adult. In other words, the number of years spent at school (in terms of courses completed) by every adult is noted at the time of the census and the average is worked out for the State as a whole.

Finally, the overall performance of every state in respect of all the above criteria is assessed and the states are ranked accordingly.

(vii) *Criteria for Preparing a Balance-Sheet of the Different States in India* : It would indeed be a great thing if the balance-sheets of the different Indian States can be prepared exactly on the American principles stated above. But, unfortunately, the necessary data are not available and consequently, it is necessary to devise some different criteria based on the analogy of the American principles to suit the available data. After a careful consideration of all the material available for 1921-22, it was decided to prepare the educational balance-sheet of the different States in India in the light of the following four criteria :

(i) *Accomplishment in Education* : This was measured at three levels—primary, secondary and collegiate. As a first step in the calculation, the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools, secondary schools and colleges was calculated per 10,000 of the population. Then standards of accomplishment were defined on the basis of the plan for *Post-War Educational Development in India* (1944), popularly known as the Sargent Plan. This plan has assumed that, for a total population of 29 crores, the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools would be 515 lakhs; in secondary schools 72.5 lakhs; and in colleges 2.40 lakhs. These standards work out at 1,770, 250 and 8.3 pupils per 10,000 of the population in

primary, secondary and collegiate stages respectively. Finally, the percentage accomplishment of each State at these stages was calculated in proportion to these standards. The formulae used were the following :

Let, a = the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools per 10,000 population.

b = the number of pupils enrolled in secondary schools per 10,000 population.

c = the number of pupils enrolled in colleges per 10,000 population.

Then,

$$\text{Percentage Accomplishment at primary stage} = \frac{a \times 100}{1770}$$

$$\text{Percentage Accomplishment at secondary stage} = \frac{b \times 100}{250}$$

$$\text{Percentage at collegiate stage} = \frac{c \times 100}{8.3}$$

These percentage accomplishments of each state at the three different stages were totalled up and the states were ranked in the descending order of the total.

(ii) *Ability to Support Education* : For this purpose, the number of children to be educated in each state as well as its total national dividend are required. But neither of these statistics is available for India. It was, therefore, assumed that the number of children to be educated bears the same proportion to total population in every state. This assumption is not quite justified because the rates of birth, the average duration of life, the rates of death and the proportion of urban to rural areas vary from state to state and must, therefore, produce some effect on the number of children to be educated. But the state variations in the percentage of population to be educated are admittedly very slight, in spite of the variations in the above factors and they may, therefore, be ignored in this rough estimation. Similarly, as the national dividend is not separately available for each state, it was assumed that the total state revenues give a fair indication of the national dividend in the state concerned. The ability to support education was, therefore, defined as the total state revenue or expenditure per 10,000 of the population. The states were then ranked in the descending order of this ability.

(iii) *Degree of Educational Effort* : For reasons already explained in the preceding paragraph, the degree of educational effort was calculated by the following formula :

$$\text{Degree of Educational Effort} = \left\{ \frac{\text{Total Educational Expenditure per 10,000 of the population}}{\text{State Revenue (or expenditure) per 10,000 of population}} \right\} \times 10$$

The different states were then ranked in the descending order of their educational effort.

(iv) *Educational Level of the Adult Population* : Here, the average years spent at school by every adult are required ; but as this data was not available, it was decided to rank the states on the basis of number of literates per 10,000 of the population.

It will be seen from the above discussion that, of the six American criteria for the balance sheet, four have been adopted with modifications. The remaining two were omitted because the application of the statistical formula to Indian conditions was of doubtful validity.

(c) *Preparation of the Balance-Sheet for Indian States (1921-22)* : In the light of the four modified criteria described above, the balance sheet of the different Indian states (Part A) for 1921-22 was prepared. Its detailed calculations are given below :

(i) *Accomplishment in Education* : The following table shows the accomplishment of the different states at primary, secondary and collegiate stages :

States	Enrolment in Primary Schools	Enrolment for 10,000 of population	Enrolment in Secondary Schools	Enrolment for 10,000 of population	Enrolment in Colleges	Enrolment for 10,000 of population	Total Percentage accomplishment	Rank
<i>Actual accomplishment of</i>								
1. Assam ..	169,151	223	35,322	52.5	819	1.5		
2. Bihar & Orissa	688,188	205	59,008	16.4	2,470	.73		
3. Bengal ..	1,435,906	300	3,28,186	70.5	21,595	4.6		
4. Bombay ..	798,508	412	77,607	40.3	7,424	3.6		
5. Central Provinces and Berar.	260,412	198	68,810	48.1	971	.71		
6. Madras ..	1,546,785	378	1,69,934	40.1	10,491	2.36		
7. Punjab ..	316,337	145	2,22,292	106.3	8,235	2.0		
8. U. P. ..	832,940	176	1,10,594	24.2	7,128	1.5		
Standard of attainment as prescribed by Sargent Report.		1,770		250		8.3	300.0	
<i>Percentage of accomplishment of</i>								
1. Assam ..		12.6		21.0		18.0	51.6	5
2. Bihar & Orissa		11.6		6.5		8.9	27.0	3
3. Bengal ..		17.0		28.2		55.4	100.6	1
4. Bombay ..		23.2		16.1		43.3	82.6	2
5. C. P. & Berar		11.1		19.2		8.6	38.9	6
6. Madras ..		21.3		16.0		28.4	65.7	4
7. Punjab ..		8.1		42.5		24.1	74.7	3
8. U. P. ..		9.9		9.6		18.0	37.5	7

(All figures are for 1921-22).

Certain interesting comparisons become apparent from the above. The final ranking, it will be seen, is not the same as that in the three individual stages. The states show different levels of progress at different stages. Bombay has the best performance at the primary stage; but Bengal beats it in total because it shows a better performance in the secondary and collegiate stages. The final ranking of the Punjab is higher than that of Madras. This is mainly due to the different systems of classification rather than to any inherent superiority in accomplishment. In the Punjab, pupils reading in primary standard V, VI and VII are classed as secondary while they are classed as primary in Madras. Consequently, the number of children shown in the secondary schools of Punjab appears to be great and gives it an undue weightage in the final ranking. If due allowance is made for this difference, Madras would stand third and Punjab fourth. The ranks of other states would remain unaffected.

(ii) *Ability to Support Education* : The following table gives the population, the total revenues and the ability to support education of the different provinces in 1921-22 :—

State	Population (figures in lakhs)	Revenues	Revenue per 10,000 of population	Ranks
		Rs.	Rs.	
1. Assam	80	1811	22,620	5
2. Bengal	467	832	17,820	7
3. Bihar & Orissa	340	442	13,000	8
4. Bombay	194	1,810	67,530	1
5. Central Provinces & Berar	140	471	33,640	3
6. Madras	423	1,174	28,230	4
7. Punjab	207	709	33,760	2
8. U. P.	454	1,001	22,040	6

The first rank goes to Bombay mainly because of its industrial development. Punjab stands at number two for similar reasons—irrigational development taking the place of the industrial development in Bombay. Central Provinces come third because the social and economic conditions in Berar resemble those in Bombay. Madras is a predominantly agricultural province like the Punjab; but it stands fourth partly because of the density of population and partly because of the lack of irrigational development. U.P., Bengal, Bihar & Orissa and Assam form another group where conditions are more or less similar—high density of population, the zamindari system and the extreme poverty of the masses being the common features. Bengal and Bihar & Orissa stand lower down even in this poorer group because of the permanent settlement of land revenue which prevented an increase in the tax since 1791.

It is interesting to see how the ability to support education is different from accomplishment in fact. Bombay with its highest ability to support ought to have shown better results and Bengal which stands seventh in ability ought to have stood at the lower rung of the ladder. But actually Bengal shows better results than those of Bombay. This was mainly because Bengal adopted the system of indigenous primary schools as its basis and made most of the primary education a private and aided affair. Moreover, the extent of private enterprise in secondary and collegiate education was greater in Bengal than in Bombay. The same reasons are responsible for the Central Provinces and Berar having a higher position in ability and a lower rank in accomplishment. The other states hold more or less the same ranks in both ability and accomplishment.

(iii) *Degree of Educational Effort* : The third criterion of the degree or educational effort is illustrated in the following table compiled for the statistics of 1921-22:

Province	Total Educational Expenditure per 10,000 population	State Revenue per 10,000 of population	Degree of Educational Effort Col. (2) × 100	Rank
(1)	(2)	(3)	Col. (3) (4)	(5)
	Rs.	Rs.		
Assam	4,370	22,620	19.1	7
Bengal	7,130	17,820	40.0	1
Bihar & Orissa	2,600	13,000	20.0	6
Bombay	15,250	67,530	22.6	5
Central Provinces & Berar	5,070	33,640	15.0	8
Madras	8,050	28,230	28.5	3
Punjab	9,130	33,760	27.3	4
U. P.	6,560	22,040	29.8	2

This table again illustrates the general principle that the degree of educational effort is not always proportional to the ability to support education. Bengal stood seventh in the ability to support education ; but in so far as effort is concerned it stands first, and thereby deserves the first rank that it held in accomplishment. The Uttar Pradesh stands second in effort; but its basic poverty (it is sixth in ability to support), combined probably with a less efficient system of education, makes it stand seventh in accomplishment. Madras has a steady rank, being fourth in ability, third in effort and third (or fourth) in accomplishment. The Punjab is second in ability; but owing to its poor effort (it ranks fourth) it stands lower down (third or fourth) in accomplishment. Central Provinces and Berar stands third in ability ; but owing to its poor effort (it stands eighth) it gets only the sixth rank in accomplishment. Bombay also stands first in ability ; but its effort is so poor (fifth rank) that one need not feel sorry that it stands only second in achievement. Bihar and Orissa and Assam stand low down in all the three criteria.

(iv) *Educational Level of the Adult Population* : The following table shows the educational level of the adult population and the ranks based thereon :

Province	Number of literates per 10,000 (1921 census)	Rank	Rank in accomplishment in primary education
Assam	630	4	4
Bengal	900	1	3
Bihar & Orissa	470	5	5
Bombay	850	3	1
C. P. & Berar	460	6	6
Madras	860	2	2
Punjab	430	7	8
U. P.	370	8	7

The ranks in this table can only be compared to the accomplishment in primary education. Here Bombay showed the best performance in so far as enrolment in primary schools is concerned, but Bengal shows the best results in literacy. It seems, therefore, that the Bombay system of primary schools was not so efficient (in so far as production of literacy is concerned) as that in Bengal. Madras, C.P. and Berar and Assam have the same rank in both. The Uttar Pradesh and Punjab only exchange places. On the whole, it may be said that the percentage of literacy is generally proportional to achievement in primary education.

(v) *Combined Ranks* : The following table gives the combined ranks of the different states in all the four criteria :

Province	Rank in Accomplishment	Rank in Ability	Rank in Effort	Rank in Literacy	Overall Rank	
					(without considering the ability to support)	All inclusive
Assam	5	5	7	4	5	5
Bengal	1	7	1	1	1	1
Bihar & Orissa ..	8	8	6	5	7	8
Bombay	2	1	5	3	3	2
C. P. & Berar ..	6	3	8	6	8	7
Madras	4	4	3	2	2	3
Punjab	3	2	4	7	4	4
U. P.	7	6	2	8	6	6

In assigning overall ranks, the first calculation has been made without taking into consideration the ranking in ability to support education. In the second calculation, it has been considered, and consequently, there are slight changes. For instance, Bombay stands first rather than Bengal; and Bihar and Orissa and C.P. and Berar also exchange places at the lower end.

Even with the meagre data that was possible to obtain, it will be seen from the foregoing discussion that there were considerable differences between the states in ability, effort and accomplishment. The causes for this were to be found in the differences in physical, social and economic environments, in the different educational policies pursued, in the preferential treatment that the Central Government gave to some states over others (Bengal was always the most favoured Province), and in educational history.

It is interesting to note that at long last the attention of Government was attracted to this problem of the differences between the Provinces. The *Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education in India (1917-22)* offers the following comments on the subject :

"The following table shows the financial position and expenditure on education of the provinces in 1921-22 :

Provinces (1)	Population (2)	Revenues (3)	Educational Expenditure (4)	Percentage of educational expenditure to revenue (5)
		Ra.	Ra.	
Assam	7,606,230	1,81,53,434	23,13,822	12.7
Bengal	46,695,536	8,32,44,177	1,18,76,621	14.3
Bihar & Orissa	34,002,189	4,42,62,036	53,36,928	12.1
Bombay	19,358,379	13,10,72,589	1,71,25,286	13.1
Burma	13,212,192	9,17,71,221	57,68,683	6.3
C.P. & Berar	13,912,760	4,71,87,880	53,68,308	11.4
Madras	42,318,985	11,74,88,517	1,42,51,598	12.1
N.W.F.P.	2,251,342	62,86,291	12,31,331	19.3
Punjab	20,685,024	7,09,68,634	87,11,371	12.3
U. P.	45,373,787	10,01,55,348	1,51,41,029	15.1
Minor Administrations	1,679,227	1,08,54,216	12,54,193	11.6
Total	247,097,651	72,14,44,243	8,83,61,170	12.2

The foregoing table requires no comment. It affords an explanation of the fact that Bengal, in some ways the most educationally advanced province in India, pays its teachers less than any other province. It shows why carefully devised schemes for the expansion of education in the rural areas of Bihar and Orissa must be held in abeyance : indeed it is reasonable to infer that, unless the revenues in that province can be made more commensurate with the number of its inhabitants, the time must come when Bihar and Orissa must be content with a system of education markedly inferior to that of a province such as Burma which with half its population has double its revenues. The financial inequalities of the provinces cannot but profoundly affect their educational policies. While Bombay with its large and growing revenues can contemplate an early and general introduction of compulsory primary education, it is out of the question for Bengal with its restricted and inelastic resources to consider any such project. Since a well-organized system of education is one of the most potent factors in economic, social and political development, the ultimate effect of such provincial divergences can hardly be over-estimated. But the present review is concerned with the educational history of the past five years, not with a problematical future ; and I have laid stress on these provincial differences only in order to warn the reader that generalisations about the conditions and progress of education in India must be adopted with some reservation."

The fact that the author of the review noted the provincial differences is a good sign : but he cannot be complemented on his refusal to suggest remedies. In fact, these provincial differences in educational advance are one of the most important problems that the Government of India will have to tackle in future by devising a suitable system of federal grants.

(d) *Balance-Sheet of the States (1945-46)* :—So far, the educational balance-sheet of nine states was worked out in detail for the year 1921-22. It would, however, be worthwhile to work out the same balance sheet again for the year 1945-46—the eve of independence. As the principles for the preparation of the balance sheet have been discussed already, the following tables of the balance sheet for the year 1945-46 are given below without any explanatory remarks. They have been compiled exactly on the lines of those for 1921-22 given earlier.

Ability to Support Education

Province	Population (estimated figures for 1945-46 in lakhs)	Revenue	Percentage per 10,000 of population	Rank
		Rs.	Rs.	
Assam	112	538.13	48,047	6
Bengal	696	2878.75	41,361	9
Bihar	413	2167.00	52,227	5
Bombay	231	2909.19	1,25,939	1
C. P. & Berar	171	948.14	55,446	4
Madras	520	4125.29	79,331	3
Orissa	92	405.87	44,116	8
Punjab	323	2587.35	80,103	2
United Provinces	590	2752.15	46,646	7

(N.B.—The figures of revenue are those budgetted for 1945-46 except in Orissa where they refer to the budget of 1946-47 and in Bihar where they refer to the budget of 1947-48.)

Degree of Educational Effort.

Province	Total Educa- tional Expendi- ture per 10,000 population	State Revenue per 10,000 population	Degree of Educational Effort Col. (2) × 100	Rank
(1)	(2)	(3)	Col. (3) (4)	(5)
	Rs.	Rs.		
Assam	9,198	48,047	18.7	6
Bengal	11,293	41,361	26.8	1
Bihar	6,077	52,227	11.5	9
Bombay	31,300	1,25,939	24.6	3
C. P. & Berar	9,883	55,446	18.1	7
Madras	19,750	79,331	25.3	2
Orissa	6,847	44,116	15.8	8
Punjab	17,647	80,103	22.0	4
United Provinces	10,186	46,646	21.2	5

[N.B.—The remarks made under the preceding table regarding figures of State revenues apply also to those given in column (3) of the above table.]

Accomplishment in Education

Province	Enrol- ment in Primary Schools	Enrol- ment for 10,000 popula- tion	Enrol- ment in Secondary Schools	Enrol- ment for 10,000 popula- tion	Enrol- ment in Colleges	Enrol- ment for 10,000 popula- tion	Total per- centage accom- plish- ment	
Assam ..	4,54,906	413	79,854	73	3,656	3		
Bengal ..	32,97,983	478	5,23,381	76	47,875	7		
Bihar ..	10,22,297	249	1,84,075	45	11,729	3		
Bombay ..	14,37,204	825	3,84,548	187	27,768	12		
C. P. & Berar ..	4,44,757	282	1,02,097	60	5,900	3		
Madras ..	31,82,837	612	4,68,362	89	33,151	6		
Orissa ..	2,48,504	278	35,185	39	2,914	3		
Punjab ..	10,30,887	322	4,22,961	132	31,177	10		
U. P. ..	14,87,888	256	2,94,335	50	39,910	7		
Standard of attain- ment as prescribed by Sargent Report		1,770		250		8.3	300.0	
Percentage accomplishment of								Rank
Assam ..		24		29		36	89	6
Bengal ..		28		30		84	142	4
Bihar ..		15		18		36	69	8
Bombay ..		37		68		145	250	1
C.P. & Berar ..		15		24		36	75	7
Madras ..		36		35		72	143	3
Orissa ..		16		18		36	68	9
Punjab ..		19		53		120	192	2
U. P. ..		18		20		84	118	5

Educational Level of the Adult Population

Province	No. of litera- tes per 10,000 population	Rank
Assam	1,150	5
Bengal	1,610	2
Bihar	920	8
Bombay	1,950	1
C. P. & Berar	1,130	6
Madras	1,300	3
Orissa	1,090	7
Punjab	1,290	4
United Provinces	850	9
All India	1,220	

Overall Ranks of States in 1921-22 and 1945-46

Province	Rank in Accomplishment		Rank in Ability		Rank in Effort		Rank in Literacy		Overall Rank (without considering the ability to support)		All inclusive	
	1921-22	1945-46	1921-22	1945-46	1921-22	1945-46	1921-22	1945-46	1921-22	1945-46	1921-22	1945-46
Assam	5	6	5	6	7	6	4	5	5	5	5	5
Bengal	1	4	7	9	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	4
Bihar	8	8	8	5	6	9	5	8	7	9	8	9
Bombay	2	1	1	1	5	3	3	1	3	1	2	1
C. P. & Berar ..	6	7	3	4	8	7	6	6	8	7	7	6
Madras	4	3	4	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	2
Orissa	8	9	8	8	6	8	5	7	7	8	8	9
Punjab	3	2	2	2	4	4	7	4	4	4	4	3
United Provinces ..	7	5	6	7	2	5	8	9	6	6	6	7

From the above tables and their detailed comparison with those for 1921-22 it is possible to draw certain general conclusions regarding the changes that took place in the education position of the different states after the introduction of dyarchy. The more important of these have been noted below :

- (a) *Rank in Accomplishment* : Bombay now shows the best record and beats Bengal which stood first in 1921-22. This is mainly due to the fact that Bombay, while continuing to maintain its lead in primary education, now showed better progress in secondary as well as in collegiate education. Madras and the Punjab also improve their record and rise one step higher in the scale—the former because of a good record of progress under all heads in general, and secondary education in particular, and the second because of a large and uniform progress under all heads. Bengal falls from the first to the fourth place—the reasons being primarily financial. The United Provinces show considerable progress under all heads. Central Provinces and Berar and Assam lose one stage each and Bihar and Orissa continue to be at the lowest rung of the ladder in both the years.
- (b) *Rank in Ability to Support Education* : Here Bombay maintains its first place in both the years and Punjab its second. Bengal falls still lower and becomes the poorest state. This is because of its general poverty and large density of population. The centralisation of income-tax hit it as hard as Bombay ; but its condition became worse because it had the additional handicap of the permanent system of land-revenue and lost a share in jute duty as well. The support that it used to receive from the Central Government as a favourite province now ceased to come in and made its financial condition still worse. Madras gains one step because of the provincialisation of land-revenue and Bihar gains because of the separation of Orissa which was a poor and a more backward area. The other states lose one step each.

- (c) *Degree of Educational Effort* : It is really creditable for Bengal that, in spite of all its financial and other handicaps, it continued to show the best results in so far as effort is concerned. Bombay shows remarkable progress mainly because of the drive for educational reconstruction undertaken by its Prime and Education Minister, Shri B. G. Kher. Madras, C.P. and Berar, and Assam gain a step each. Punjab remains steady and the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa all record a bad fall. The Congress Ministries in these states did not attach that importance to educational reconstruction which those of Bombay or Madras did. Hence the difference.
- (d) *Educational Level of the Adult Population* : In 1945-46, the first place is taken by Bombay as against Bengal in 1921-22. The Punjab gains considerably. C.P. and Berar remains constant, and all other states show a proportionate decline. The differences in the new ranks are mainly due to the gains recorded by Bombay and Punjab.
- (e) *Over-All Ranks* : Bombay stands first in spite of a less intensive effort because of its inherent wealth. Bengal stands fourth in spite of the best effort because of its intrinsic poverty. The Punjab and Madras show good progress partly due to the provincialisation of land-revenue which enriched them and partly due to the interest in education taken by their popular ministers. The position of other states hardly needs any comment.
- (f) *State Contributions of Education* : Before closing this discussion it would be worthwhile to estimate the contribution of the different State revenues to total educational expenditure and to compare it with that in 1921-22. This is shown in the following table :

Province	Population estimated for 1945-46	Revenue (in lakhs)	Educational expenditure from State revenues	Percentage of educational expenditure from State revenues to total State revenue	
				1921-22	1945-46
Assam ..	1,11,62,658	Rs. 538.13	Rs. 60,60,362	12.7	11.2
Bengal ..	6,96,22,558	2,878.75	2,74,22,329	14.3	9.3
Bihar ..	4,13,23,278	2,167.00	65,23,904	12.1	8.0
Bombay ..	2,30,74,333	2,909.19	2,88,55,742	13.1	9.6
C. P. & Berar ..	1,70,49,144	948.14	67,82,449	11.4	7.4
Madras ..	5,20,04,371	4,125.29	4,70,88,688	12.1	11.4
Orissa ..	91,99,884	405.87	38,64,989	12.1	9.6
Punjab ..	3,23,05,765	2,587.35	2,69,62,511	12.3	10.4
United Provinces	5,89,80,502	2,752.15	2,70,03,667	15.1	9.8
Total ..	31,47,22,493	19,301.87	18,05,64,641	12.2	9.3

(N.B.—The figures of total revenue are taken from the budgets of 1945-46 except in the case of Bihar where they refer to the year 1947-48 and Orissa where they are of the year 1946-47.)

It will be seen from the above table that the percentage of total state revenues devoted to education fell from 12.2 in 1921-22 to 9.3 in 1945-46. This was mainly due to the fact that during the war, the total revenues of the state governments increased inordinately ; but the 'care-taker' Government refused to increase educational expenditure in proportion. They merely tried to maintain the *status quo* and often did not even succeed in that. Consequently, the proportion of educational expenditure from state revenues to total revenues showed a large fall.



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APPENDIX B(11)

Administrative Difficulties Involved in the Concept of Approved Expenditure

The following extract from the book "History of the Local Fund Cess (appropriated to education) in the Province of Bombay" by Shri J. P. Naik shows how the concept of "approved expenditure" was used to evade grants-in-aid legitimately due from the Government of Bombay in the lean years from 1929 to 1937 :

"The second duty of Government was to expand primary education on a voluntary basis and to realise the ideal of the Chandavarkar Committee, viz. to double the number of pupils within ten years. To this end, Government ought to have provided all the grants payable to local boards under the system fixed by the Act and the Rules. But it is here that we find the policy of Government most painfully retrogrades. Under some pretext or the other, Government evaded the payment of legitimate demands and starved primary education. This was done mainly in the following three ways :

- (i) By reduction in the Datum-grants under certain circumstances ;
- (ii) By not "approving" expenditure legitimately incurred ; and
- (iii) By imposing emergency cuts even on approved expenditure.

Let us discuss these seriatim.

(i) **Approved Expenditure :** The second method by which Government evaded to pay the legitimate demands of the boards was by refusing to "approve" their expenditure on primary education. When the rules reserved to Government the right to "approve" expenditure and to pay grants at two-thirds of the approved and not of the total expenditure no one raised any great protest. For, it was believed that the words "approved" would be sensibly interpreted or that it would be used only to prevent extravagance or misapplication of funds. No one even dreamt that the word would be used to exclude such legitimate and urgent expenditure as on the opening of new schools where they were long in demand, or the appointment of teachers in understaffed schools, or the payment of house-rent in a drive to improve school accommodation.

But in actual practice the word "approved" became a terrible weapon in the hands of Government and was used extensively to dodge payments on legitimate expenditure of several lakhs of rupees every year. Every technicality and excuse was availed of to evade "approval" and each audit of a school board account became a ceaseless search for excuses to "disallow expenditure for purposes of Government grant". It is needless to go into all the intricacies of the problem in this small book. The curious reader may well have a look at the "Code Containing Orders of Government Regulating Expenditure on Primary Education" in order to have an initiation into the mysteries of the subject. The book is a massive document of more than a hundred pages and seeks to explain the various items on which no expenditure can be admitted for Government grant. As a sample, I quote the following:

- "194. Expenditure incurred by School Boards on repairs to the articles of furniture lent by the Department will not be admitted for Government grant."

LIST OF INADMISSIBLE ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE

- "Expenditure in connection with the items detailed below is not admissible for Government grant :
- "202. Pay of "Charka" master.
 - "219. Grant to Municipal Teachers' Library.

- "222. Expenditure on Magic Lanterns by Local Authorities or Municipalities.
- "223. Expenditure on purchase of materials for Magic Lanterns by Local Authority or Municipalities.
- "224. Expenditure on account of gardening charges in primary schools (in the case of Municipalities).
- "225. Expenditure incurred by the boards in planting trees in school compounds.
- "231. Expenditure on primary school tournaments.
- "249. Expenditure on handiercraft exhibition."

I have quoted these illustrations to show the ludicrous side of the Code rather than its inconveniences. After all, the expenditure on items of this type is negligible and it matters little whether they are approved or unapproved. But the real inconvenience to the Boards was caused by the policy of Government to disallow expenditure on the following items :

- (1) Opening of New Schools : Government disallowed for grant all expenditure on the new schools opened by a local board unless it had obtained the previous approval of Government for the same. This prevented rapid expansion of schools in rural areas. The total number of villages and towns in the Province is 21,668. Out of these, only 7,517 were provided with a school in 1921-22. Sixteen years later in 1937-38, we find that the number of villages and towns with schools had only increased to 9,180. The Chandavarkar Committee had suggested that each *taluka* should be taken as a unit, that a survey of the school-less villages should be carried out, and that schools in one-tenth of such villages should be opened every year, provided that the village concerned was big enough to make at least 30 children available for instruction. Had this plan been stuck to, it would have been possible to open a school each in all school-less villages where about 30 children could be expected to attend. The local boards eagerly went about the programme. But Government did not "approve" several schools on the only ground of financial stringency. The result was that local boards could achieve only a slight expansion by their own unaided resources.
- (2) Appointment of Additional Teachers : Similarly, Government disallowed for grant all expenditure on teachers for whose posts its previous sanction had not been obtained. As awakening among the people increased, more children began to come to schools even without compulsion. This was particularly so after the Civil Disobedience Movement of 1931-32. In order to cope with the demand, the local boards had either to appoint large number of additional teachers or to adopt economy devices like the shift system. The Educational Department which was bent on "efficiency" would not allow the adoption of the shift system and the Government which was bent on economy of finance would not sanction the additional teachers required. It is to be remembered that the posts of several hundred of teachers remained unsanctioned for years together, not because they were considered to be unnecessary, but because Government could not see their way to "sanction" them. This was another tremendous set-back to expansion.
- (3) Rents for School Buildings : Thirdly, Government made it a rule that the expenditure of a local authority on rents for school buildings in any year would be admissible for purposes of Government grant to the extent to which it was admitted in the previous year

plus an increase of five per cent over it. Now the amount of rents paid by a local authority has increased considerably owing to the increase in schools and pupils and the desire of the local bodies to replace rent-free buildings by rented ones—chiefly with a view to securing free access to Harijans. But the above rule has led to hardships and a good deal of expenditure on rents remained un-sanctioned.

It is not necessary to give instances of other items of expenditure which were usually disallowed. The illustrations given above are quite enough to show how the Government policy of disallowing legitimate expenditure for purposes of grant hindered the rapid expansion of primary education.

The cumulative effect of all these mistakes of commission and omission—both on part of local boards and of Government—may be seen in the following table which compares the statistics of expenditure on primary education in rural areas in 1921-22 and 1937-38:

Division	1921-22		1937-38	
	Government Grant	Local Fund Cess and other Local Taxation	Government Grant	Local Fund Cess and other Local Taxation
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
B. D.	11,59,773	1,54,431	13,22,762	2,63,256
C. D.	22,58,537	3,21,661	28,03,507	7,17,034
N. D.	17,55,773	1,93,593	17,59,908	2,20,481
S. D.	15,32,433	1,77,476	16,73,218	3,63,116
Total for the Province ..	67,06,516	8,47,161	75,59,395	15,63,887

One has only to compare these figures with the expectations of the Chanda-verkar Committee to realise the colossal failure of the period under review. The Committee expected that the Provincial expenditure would increase by about Rs. 77 lakhs (including Sind) in ten years. Actually it increased by about Rs. 8.5 lakhs (excluding Sind) only in sixteen years! Similarly, the Committee expected the contributions of local boards to rise by Rs. 20 lakhs (including Sind); actually it has risen by Rs. 7.25 lakhs (excluding Sind) only. As against this rise in local board expenditure, Government ought to have contributed at least Rs. 14.5 lakhs; but it contributed only Rs. 8.5 lakhs. The figures hardly need any further comments."

Regarding the general policy to be followed with regard to "approved expenditure", we feel that all essential and legitimate expenditure incurred by a local body on primary education should be admitted for purposes of grant-in-aid. In this connection, the following suggestions, if adopted, will greatly ease the situation:

- (i) *New Schools* : Expenditure should be approved unless the school is held to be unnecessary by inspecting officers.

- (ii) *Additional Teachers* : Government should prescribe the number of pupils in average attendance for which one post would be sanctioned. All posts of teachers filled up on such a basis should be taken as approved.
- (iii) *Rents of School Buildings* : All the expenditure incurred by a local authority on rents should be admitted for grant provided that for all increase over the previous year the following two certificates are forthcoming :
- (a) a certificate by the Deputy Educational Inspector of the district to the effect that the additional accommodation rented was necessary ; and
 - (b) a certificate by the Executive Engineer to the effect that the rent is reasonable.

This recommendation, if adopted, will cause no hardship to local authorities, will effectively control extravagance in expenditure if any and will also provide for all legitimate increase in needs.

- (iv) *Non-teaching Staff* : A block grant should be given on this account, as recommended earlier.



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APPENDIX B(12)

Capacities of Different Districts to Bear Educational Expenditure

(This is an extract from a report submitted to the Government of Bombay in 1941, by the Provincial Board of Primary Education, on the subject 'Financial Relations between Government and Local Authorities').

I propose to discuss here the general factors that affect the cost of education under a local authority. I shall divide them into three groups—economic, physical and social and proceed to their consideration seriatim.

Economic Factors : We shall have to consider the economic capacity of each district as represented by the amount of the local rate collected in the area. This is the main source of revenue of local authorities and on it will depend the capacity of the district to contribute towards the cost of primary education. The total local cess in our Province is Rs. 22.11 lakhs in round figures calculating it at the uniform rate of one-anna in a rupee of Land Revenue (for purposes of comparison I have ignored differences in rates from district to district). This means a revenue of Re. 0.2-5 per capita. A scrutiny of the figures for all districts will show that the following districts are below the provincial average :

					Rs. As. Ps.
Ratnagiri	0 0 9
Panch Mahals	0 1 4
Poona	0 1 7
Satara	0 1 8
Bijapur	0 1 10
Sholapur	0 1 10
Thana	0 1 10
Nasik	0 2 1
Kolaba	0 2 0
Ahmednagar	0 2 2
Belgaum	0 2 2

Physical Factors : Among the physical factors that hamper the growth of primary education are (1) low density of population, (2) small and scattered villages and (3) forest areas. I propose that due consideration should be given to the local authorities for these handicaps. This is the only way in which the several local authorities can be enabled to the goal of universal primary education within a reasonable time.

Regarding (1) I find that the average density of population in our province is 232 persons per square mile. The following districts have a density smaller than this average :

North Kanara	106
West Khandesh	121
Ahmednagar	149
Bijapur	152
Nasik	170
Sholapur	192
Broach	228

Regarding (2), I find that the number of villages and towns in our Province is 21,668 out of which 12,284 are below a population of 500 and 9,384 above—their relative percentages being 57 and 43 respectively. The population of the Province is 18 millions of which three millions or 17 per cent is in villages

below a population of 500. It is our experience that the cost of education is inversely proportional to the average size of villages. In North Kanara for example, where there is the largest number of small and scattered villages, the cost of education is highest of all districts in our Province. I have compared the several districts from this point of view and I find that the following districts are below the Provincial average :

District (1)	Percentage of villages below 500 (2)	Population in villages below 500 (3)
Ahmednagar	20
Bijapur	19
Broach	18
Kolaba	77	44
Nasik	64	26
North Kanara	86	33
Panch Mahals	22
Thana	64	32
West Khandesh	69	27

Regarding (3), I find that the total area under forests in our province is 8.3 million acres, giving an average of 0.4 million acres per district. The following districts have forest areas in excess of this average :

	million acres
North Kanara	2.0
West Khandesh	1.3
Thana	0.8
Nasik	0.8

Social factors : I also suggest that the population of the backward classes should be taken into consideration. As Government have a special responsibility about the socially backward classes and as it is necessary to make special effort to spread education amongst them, I suggest that a local authority which has to provide for an unusually large number of backward class population should be given some special consideration. The total population of backward classes in our Province is 37,52,000 or 21 per cent. We need not, therefore consider the case of districts where the percentage of backward class people is less than 21. The districts wherein the percentage is more than 21 are :—

	Per cent.
Sholapur	22
Ahmednagar	27
Broach	31
Nasik	31
Panch Mahals	37
Thana	45
West Khandesh	45
Surat	47

The consolidated effect of all these factors is given below :

Consolidated Statement

Serial No.	District	Local cess income per capita of population	Density of population per sq. mile	Percentage of villages below 500	Percentage of population in villages below 500	Forest area (in million acres)	Percentage of backward classes
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Provincial average		Rs. As. Ps. 0 2 5	232	57	17	0.4	21
	Ratnagiri ..	0 0 9
	Panch Mahals	0 1 4	22	..	37
	Poona ..	0 1 7
	Satara ..	0 1 8
	Bijapur ..	0 1 10	152	..	10
	Sholapur ..	0 1 10	192	22
	Thana ..	0 1 10	..	64	32	0.8	45
	Nasik ..	0 2 1	170	64	26	0.8	31
	Kolaba ..	0 2 0	..	77	42
	Ahmed Nagar	0 2 2	149	..	20	..	27
	Belgaum	0 2 2
	N. Kanara	..	106	86	33	2.0	..
	W. Khandesh	..	121	69	27	1.3	45
	Broach	228	..	18	..	31
	Surat	47

NOTE :—Absence of figures means that the position of this is better than the Provincial.

A careful study of the above figures will show that the only districts that require special treatment are :—

1. North Kanara

2. Thana

3. Nasik

4. West Khandesh

5. Ratnagiri

6. Panch Mahals

7. Kolaba

APPENDIX B(13)

Kale Committee's Recommendations (1939)

Primary Education Cess : The Committee has been specifically asked to consider the question of the levy of a special educational cess by municipalities, the method of such levy, the incidence of such cess and the question of educational finance generally. We recommend that an Educational tax should be levied by all the municipalities. Section 59 of the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901, should be amended on the lines of section 73 of the Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925, which provides for the levy of a special education tax, and like the house tax in the Village Panchayat Act, the levy of this tax should be made compulsory in both these Acts. The education tax should be a direct tax tacked on to the property tax at so much per cent on the annual letting value or the capital value as the case may be. The rate of the tax in each municipality will have to depend upon the circumstances of each case. The cost of introducing compulsory primary education in each municipal area will have to be ascertained, the share of each municipality payable according to the present Primary Education Act will have to be determined and the Special Education Tax will have to be levied at a rate sufficient to produce the amount so required. Government's liability to pay its share according to the Primary Education Act must be met from provincial funds. In view of certain judicial decisions making out that the Primary Education Act was not sufficiently explicit in defining Government's obligation in this respect, we recommend that the Act should be so amended as to fix this liability on a contract basis. Obligations of both the contributory parties should be placed on a clear statutory footing.

In order that rural areas whose resources are limited, may have the benefit of compulsory primary education and the district boards may be able to contribute their share of expenses towards the introduction of compulsion, we have recommended elsewhere an increase in the local fund cess and provided for a minimum contribution of 10 pies in the rupee to be earmarked for primary education. The municipal primary education cess and the increase in the land revenue cess will, in our opinion, go a long way towards financing schemes of compulsion.

We have recommended that the Education tax should produce an amount sufficient to enable the municipalities to bear their share of the burden, but the same cannot hold good in the case of local boards. The minimum of 10 pies that we have stipulated will have to be raised to a higher level in several cases to make up the due share of those bodies in the expenditure on education. We have noted that most of the boards who have raised their cess above one anna are devoting more than 10 pies towards primary education. We understand that the Bombay Suburban District is contributing 16 pies out of the two-anna levied. We have no doubt that other boards will raise this minimum to the extent necessary.

Government will have to arrange its own provincial budget with a view to providing funds sufficient to enable it to bear its own share of expenditure on compulsory primary education. We envisage the possibility that Government may find it difficult to do so as far as rural areas are concerned. In the circumstances Government may be obliged to reduce the present statutory proportion of the education grant and we feel that richer municipalities may be expected to shoulder a little higher proportion of expenses for the benefit of backward areas which must be brought in line with the more fortunate ones. This is a question of making the most of such resources as are available and of distributing the expenditure and its burden in the efficient and equitable way.

APPENDIX B(14)

Shala Fund of the District School Board, Surat, Bombay State

In 1936-37, Shala Fund was started by the District School Board, Surat, primarily with the object of making local collections to provide for those items of essential expenditure on primary schools which could not be financed by the District School Board.

At present, every school in the district has a Shala Fund. Amounts for this Fund are collected by the Headmaster on such occasions as marriages or births in local rich families or when the child of a well-to-do parent is admitted to the school. They are also collected on the occasion of religious festivals, national holidays or during special weeks like the Gandhi Jayanti. Every school is provided with a printed receipt-book and a receipt is issued for every amount donated to the Fund. The amount is deposited in the Savings Bank of the nearest Post Office and the account is operated by the Headmaster of the school. Accounts are maintained regularly and audited by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors at the time of inspecting the schools. For all items of expenditure, the Headmaster is required to produce a certificate from the Chairman of the Local School Committee to the effect that the expenditure in question was actually incurred.

The amount of the Shala Fund of a village school varies considerably according to the size and the financial condition of the village. Individual schools have funds varying from Rs. five to Rs. 250 and a total amount of Rs. 1,50,000 has been collected for all the Shala Funds of the District during the last 12 years.

The amount of the Shala Fund is used for the following purposes, among others :

1. educational conferences ;
2. sports competitions ;
3. excursions of pupils ;
4. purchase of tools or plants for the school gardens ;
5. provision of educational magazines and daily or weekly newspapers ;
6. purchase of equipment such as a clock, photographs of national leaders, apparatus of physical education, etc.

APPENDIX B(15)

Report of the Committee appointed by the Government of the Punjab to Review the System of Grants to Local Bodies for Vernacular Education

Government appointed in September, 1948 a Committee consisting of the following members to advise it regarding the system of grants-in-aid to local bodies for vernacular education :

1. The Hon'ble Chief Minister (The Prime Minister as Chairman).
2. The Hon'ble Minister for Education.
3. The Secretary to Government Punjab, Education Department.
4. The Secretary to Government Punjab, Finance Department.
5. The Secretary to Government Punjab, Health and Local Government Departments.
6. Shri Probodh Chandra, M.L.A.
7. Sardar Shiv Saran Singh, M.L.A.
8. Dr. Prakash Kaur, M.L.A.

Inspector, Vernacular Education was to act as Secretary of the Committee.

The Committee was appointed with the following terms of references :

1. To review the system of grants-in-aid to local bodies for Vernacular Education.
2. To examine in its various aspects the question of taking over the administration and control of local body schools by Government.

In all, five meetings were held on the dates given below :

First meeting on 21st October 1948.

Second meeting on 24th November 1948.

Third meeting on 27th December 1949.

Fourth meeting on 21st January 1950.

Fifth meeting on 1st July 1950.

The first two meetings were held to study the existing position. In the other meetings certain decisions were taken which will be reproduced in the subsequent paragraphs of this report.

The two issues e.g., (1) taking over the administration of local body schools by Government and (2) the system of grants to local bodies, are dealt with as under :

1. A questionnaire on the subject was issued to certain officials, non-officials and eminent educationists in the State. Their replies have been consolidated in the appendix to this report. The consensus of opinion in this State is that Government should take over the administration and control of education from the local bodies. In deciding this important issue we have taken various factors into consideration and examined all the implications involved in the proposal. Facing facts as they are, the following points arise out of the proposed change which have to be clearly settled and appreciated before we can recommend to Government our final conclusions in this respect :

- (i) Whether Government would assume the control of education from all types of local bodies at a time or would restrict its action for the present to district boards alone.
- (ii) Whether Government would like to take the entire control of school education at all stages or of only primary and vernacular education.

- (iii) Will Government meet the entire cost of education from its own funds or expect the district boards to continue to share it with Government even after the proposed transfer of control.
- (iv) In case district boards are to continue their contribution to the cost of education, will this contribution be progressive like Government's own or limited. If limited, will it be on the basis of a fixed minimum amount or a fixed percentage of their net income.
- (v) Whether the provincialised staff will be placed at par as it should be, with the present Government employees in regard to their scales of pay or whether in view of their present local scales of salary on one side and paucity of funds on the other they shall form a separate cadre of their own, on comparatively lower scales, for at least some years to come.
- (vi) Whether the provincialised staff should be admitted to the existing system of pensions in Government service or should continue to enjoy the advantages of their present contributory Provident Fund.
- (vii) Who should look after the school buildings to be transferred to Government—Public Works Department of the district boards or of Government.
- (viii) How is the transfer of control to be actually effected—by mutual agreement between the Government and local bodies or by a fresh legislation amending the relevant portions of the District Board Act and Municipal Act.
- (ix) What administrative changes will be required to bring about the proposed change.

We have thoroughly discussed all these points arising out of this problem and have come to the conclusion that the time is not yet ripe for bringing about this change in the State. The proposed step presents many financial and administrative difficulties. If it is decided to provincialise all the local body schools it would be essential to increase to a great extent the supervisory staff for the schools as well as the clerical agency to cope with the increased work. At present the number of Assistant District Inspectors of Schools is hardly sufficient to supervise all the primary schools in the State. With their limited allotment, they cannot pay more than two visits to each school in a year. There are at present 89 Assistant District Inspectors of Schools who do the supervisory and inspection work and as many as 50 to 70 schools are put under the control of each Assistant District Inspector of schools. Transfer of control to Government would involve better equipment, well paid staff and more improvements necessitating expansion of administrative machinery to a very great extent. This administrative change would result in a very heavy additional financial liability to the Government. As soon as Government decides to take over the local body schools, staff employed in the schools will demand the revision of scales of salary on the lines of grades obtainable in Government Schools. The strength of the administrative staff will have to be increased and there would be more expenditure under the heads of Provident Fund and Pension. It has been estimated that in all, the proposed change will involve Government with an additional cost of Rs. 42,20,968/- in the first year, Rs. 48,79,003/- in the second year, Rs. 57,55,877/- in the third year, Rs. 61,83,500/- in the fourth year and Rs. 68,38,058/- in the fifth year. The financial liability is bound to multiply many times as the expenditure on education would be rapidly progressive for many years to come before the country can hope to reach the desired goal of imparting free, universal and compulsory education in the State. Besides, at the present time when there is a keen demand to give more and more powers to the people through the agency of Panchayats, the proposed change will be considered as a retrograde step by the public.

Taking all these factors into considerations, we do not favour the idea of taking over the control and administration of local body schools by Government and recommend that the Education Department should adopt effective measures for tightening the control and supervision of primary education in the State.

2. We now come to the second point in the terms of reference i.e., the revision of the system of grants to local bodies for vernacular education. The existing system of grants to local bodies which was devised as early as 1917-18 has been explained in a note appended to this report. We have obtained the views of the educationists, officials and non-officials on the working of this system in the form of a questionnaire which will be found in the appendix. The replies received from various quarters show that under the present system the local bodies have not been able to meet the educational needs of the public in their areas. After examining the factual data in regard to the financial position and the progress of education made by each district board during the last five years, it has been made clear to us that lack of educational facilities in the rural areas has not been so much due to faulty system of grants as it is due to the scanty resources of these local bodies. While the needs of the public for more educational facilities have grown from year to year, the local bodies in the province have not tapped new sources of revenue to meet the ever-increasing expenditure on education. We, therefore, feel that at the present moment what is needed most is more money which should enable the district boards to bring their financial position on a strong footing. We are strongly of opinion that Government should make it obligatory for each district board to levy local rate at As. 3 to a rupee at least. If that is not found sufficient to meet the educational needs of the district then the local bodies should apply to the Department for increase in the tuition fee in secondary classes. Government should also take steps to help the weak district boards especially those which are at present graded at 60 per cent. for the purpose of grant for vernacular education. We would, therefore, urge upon Government to make provision of additional funds, on the assumed basis that the district boards graded at 60 per cent (Ambala, Karnal, Ferozepore, Gurdaspur, Hoshiarpur, Jullundur, Amritsar) are to be treated as if they were graded at 70 per cent district boards after examining their needs and their financial position.

We have examined the system of grants to the urban committees in the State. The present system of grant has been explained in a note appended to this report. The financial aid which the committees receive from Government is meagre as compared with the expenditure which they are incurring on the maintenance of educational institutions in their areas. The average percentage of grants which these local bodies are at present receiving in relation to their gross expenditure on vernacular education (excluding dearness allowance) comes to about 30 per cent. We feel that the grants to the urban committees should be paid by Government at higher rates than at present and would recommend that Government while not committing itself to any particular method of calculation of grants should provide for additional funds which would be needed if these committees are paid grants equal to 40 per cent of their expenditure on the maintenance of their own vernacular schools.

For future years it seems essential to lay down a policy and evolve a formula for meeting the additional expenditure on the expansion schemes. It is quite clear that neither the Government nor the local bodies are in a position to undertake the entire burden of education which has to be shared between themselves. We are of the opinion that the time has come when Government should formulate a clear cut policy in the matter of expansion of education in each district and clearly lay down the commitments of Government and local bodies in this respect. We think that the best thing would be to ask the local bodies to prepare a five year plan of expansion and get it approved every year. Government may pay 70 per cent of the approved expenditure as its own share of the cost and the remaining

30 per cent may be met by each local body. It will be for the local bodies concerned to increase their resources to meet the growing needs in the sphere of education by increasing the local rate or by asking for local help through the agency of Panchayats. In the case of weak district boards Government may arrange for additional help by paying special grants to enable them to keep pace with the other districts.

In this connection we would note on two more points which are relevant to the subject under discussion. One relates to the distribution of the income of the district boards amongst its various departments. At the present moment the district boards are spending their income in a haphazard way and there is no clear cut policy to guide them. We are of the opinion that the whole question of fixing percentage to be spent by the various departments of the district boards needs close examination with the help of the Coordination Board. The other point which we consider very important relates to the irregular payment of salaries to teachers. We think that in the interest of efficiency it is most essential that the teachers' grievances in this respect should be removed. One way of improving matters is to pay grants to local bodies in three instalments instead of two in the year. The other way is to change the present procedure of making payments. At present the payments are made to the staff through the local body offices. We suggest that as in Bombay and Bengal, there should be a separate fund for education in each district to which the income from the following sources be credited :

1. Grants from Government.
2. Fees and fines.
3. Public donations, if any.
4. Income from the local bodies provided for education.

This fund should be administered by the District Inspector of Schools who should be the disbursing officer and who should see that payments are made to the teachers regularly.

In the end we would summarise our recommendations as below :

1. We do not favour the idea of Government taking over the control and administration of local body schools, as the proposed change involves serious financial and administrative difficulties.

2. Government should take steps to improve the efficiency of schools by tightening up their control and supervision. In this connection we suggest the following measures which Government should take to improve the standard of working in the schools.

- (a) The Head Masters of centre schools should be required to pay surprise visits to schools to see that the schools keep functioning properly. They should report on the roll and attendance in the schools and their regular working to the Assistant District Inspector of Schools for necessary action.
- (b) The District Board members of the Education sub-committees should be authorised to visit the schools in their *ilaga*. They should visit the schools to see that they are maintaining progress and that the attendance of boys and the teachers is regular. If necessary, they should send reports about the schools visited by them to the District Inspector of Schools who should take them into account while endorsing the work of the teachers. The expenditure incurred by the district boards on the payment of T.A. to the members for this purpose may be considered as approved for grant purposes.

- (c) Village committees should be formed in the villages where the panchayats do not exist. These committees should be asked to help in the administration of schools. They should see the general working of schools and help the district boards in the repairs of school buildings and arrange for play-grounds and equipment etc. The function of these committees will be purely advisory and will have nothing to do with the day-to-day administration of schools.
- (d) To check the undue interference of the members of the district boards in the affairs of schools it is proposed to make the delegation more effective by amending article 48, Punjab Education Code. In all educational matters the proposals of the District Inspector of Schools should go direct to the Chairman or to Vice-chairman and no intermediary authority should be allowed to function.

3. Government should take effective steps to increase the resources of local bodies to enable them to meet the increasing expenditure on education. The district boards should be asked to increase compulsorily the local rate to at least As. -[3]- to the rupee. If that is found insufficient the local bodies may be authorized to increase the rates of tuition fee in the secondary classes and to levy tuition fees in the primary classes. We recommend the levy of tuition fee, at the primary stage at the following rates :

I Class.....	As. -[8]-
II Class.....	As. -[10]-
III Class.....	As. -[12]-
IV Class.....	As. -[14]-

The fee at the above rates may be charged from the pupils whose parents are paying income tax or land revenue above Rs. 100/- per annum.

4. Government should take steps to give more financial aid to the weak district boards especially to those which are at present graded at 60 per cent for grant purposes. While not committing itself to any particular method of calculating grants it should provide for additional funds for primary education which should be needed if the district boards graded at 60 per cent are actually re-graded at 70 per cent for grant purposes.

5. Grants to Urban Committees for vernacular education should be paid at higher rates than at present. We think that Government should provide for additional funds which will be required if the Urban Committees are paid grants equal to 40 per cent (and not 30 per cent as at present) of their expenditure on the maintenance of their own vernacular schools.

6. The financial aid to the Urban Committees for their expenditure on the payment of grants to aided vernacular schools should remain the same as before. heretofore, the Department may pay to the Urban Committees grants equal to 13 of what they have to pay to the aided schools.

7. For future years, Government should lay down a policy and evolve a formula for meeting the additional expenditure on the expansion of schemes. We recommend that in future the additional expenditure on this account should be met by Government and the local bodies equal to 70 per cent and 30 per cent respectively. The local bodies may meet the additional expenditure by increasing its resources and by asking for local help through the agency of Panchayats. In the case of weak district boards, Government may arrange for special aid to enable them to keep pace with other districts.

8. The question of fixing percentages of income to be spent by the various Departments of District Boards should be closely examined with the help of the Co-ordination Board.

9. We feel that the grievances of teachers regarding the irregular payment of salaries must be removed. One way of improving matter is to pay grants to the local bodies in three instalments instead of two in the year. The other way is to change the present procedure of making payments. We suggest that as in Bombay and Bengal there should be a separate fund for education in each district to which the income from the following sources be credited :

1. Grants from Government.
2. Fees and fines.
3. Public donations, if any.
4. Income from the local bodies provided for education.

This fund should be administered by the District Inspector of Schools who should be the disbursing officer and who should see that payments are made to the teachers regularly.

10. The Government should make efforts to see that emoluments of local body teachers are not reduced and that no Primary school is closed by a local body for want of funds.



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